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THE SOUTHWESTERN SOCIAL SCIENCE QUARTERLY

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THE PASSAGE OF THE BRITISH OLD AGE PENSION ACT OF 1908

BENJAMIN SACKS
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Few topics are being discussed more energetically to-day in America than that of old age pensions. The launching of the Social Security Act has brought forth both glowing and gloomy predictions. What has been seemingly absent from our development of the question has been a lack of understanding on the part of the public of the objectives to be achieved and the consequences to be avoided for our capitalistic structure of society. No better opportunity perhaps for securing this background can be afforded the average citizen than the account of the struggle to enact an old age pension system in Great Britain more than a generation ago. This, in short, is my excuse, aside from the academic one of truth for truth's sake, in presenting an episode from the annals of the past.

While the credit for the passage of an old age pension bill must be given to the Liberal party, the preliminary work of sifting the various proposals was accomplished in the years from 1891 to 1906, predominantly a Tory era. Parliament not only held many debates on the subject, but also set up several royal commissions to study the question. The census of 1891, coupled with the investigations of such sentimental philanthropists as Charles Booth, a retired ship owner in London, and Benjamin Seebohm Rowntree, a manufacturer of popular confectionery in York, had disclosed the startling fact that a large share of the aged were paupers. Out of two million people over sixty-five, the figures indicated that only one-third were in good circumstances. It was apparent that the nineteenth century alternatives of thrift or charity had been ineffective. The unskilled workers, the class which provided the largest number of aged paupers, found thrift

difficult to practise in view of the low wages paid them, while trade depressions and inefficient management of mutual benefit associations often rendered nugatory the noble intentions of the skilled workers. Indeed there were some who asserted that thrift was "invented by capitalist rogues to beguile fools to destruction," for it was they who took this money and speculated with it in one or another fashion. As for the other alternative, charity, the weekly outdoor relief of three shillings was totally inadequate for the necessities of life, while the workhouse as a haven for those infirm or without kin was at best a dreary residence with its stern discipline. Then, too, many still had the proud spirit of youth and were diffident about accepting aid given in the manner of alms. Verily, blessed were the poor who died early in England!¹

To many these disclosures, if left unremedied, involved serious social consequences. The young and ambitious, faced with the necessity of taking care of their parents, often found the latter a millstone about their necks. Untold were the number of promising careers snuffed out by the additional worry and expense. Dangerous, too, was the possibility that the aged, in desperate straits, might pull down to their level those in better circumstances by accepting lower wages. In the light of such implications, let alone those of humanitarianism, there were relatively few who would deny the necessity for further measures. What was difficult was to obtain agreement on the best possible solution. Pronounced differences of opinion were apparent on such fundamental points as the applicability of technical features, the preservation of moral fiber and character, and the maintenance of the economic structure.²

¹Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates*, 4th ser., LXIX, 57-85; CLXIX, 216 et seq; CLXXXVIII, 463-476; CLXL, 632, 660-672, 733-734; *Quarterly Review*, vol. CCIX (July, 1908), 144-146; Joseph Chamberlain, "Old Age Pensions," in the *National Review*, vol. XVIII (February, 1892), pp. 729-732; Harold Spender, "The Government and Old Age Pensions," in the *Contemporary Review*, vol. LXLIII (January, 1908), pp. 94-97; Charles Booth, *Life and Labour of the People of London*, 17 vols. (London, 1891-1903); Benjamin Seebohm Rowntree, *Poverty: A Study of Town Life*, (London, 1901).

²Parl. Debates, 4th ser., CLXIX, 216 et seq; CLXL, 621-622; F. Spencer Baldwin, "Old Age Pension Schemes; A Criticism and a Program" in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, vol. XXIV (August, 1910), pp. 713-742; Charles Booth, *Pauperism and the Endowment of Old Age*, (London, 1892).

The plan to have the employer assume the cost of super-annuation benefits was criticized as interposing technical difficulties. Since trade depressions and labor strife, among other things, made it hardly likely that a worker would remain with one concern throughout his lifetime, not many workers would benefit from this plan. On the other hand, many artisans might be influenced to become more compliant to the discipline of the shop in order not to lose their pension, thus impairing the sturdy character of the Englishman. Again, there was a danger that the employer might attempt to recoup himself for this compulsory outlay by depressing wages or by raising the price of his commodity. In this event, the employee in his role as either producer or consumer would suffer. At any rate, the industrial structure would receive a tremor which would cause at least a temporary period of discomfiture and readjustment.³

The German system of compulsory insurance for the employee, the fund to be secured by contributions from the employer, employee, and the State, was favored by many. It was claimed that since both the funds and the administration would be in the hands of the Government the possibility of a loss of the annuity by a change in employment or by a period of unemployment would be obviated. At the same time, the realization that the pension would continue to mount no matter how often the worker changed jobs would minimize the danger of a servile citizenry. Critics, however, were not lacking to point out the technical drawbacks inherent in this pension plan. Not only would it bear hardly on the poorer workers to make a contribution, however small it might be, but there would still be present also the question of the steady gait of employment necessary to secure a worthwhile annuity in old age. Moreover, it would be equally as true for this as well as for the other scheme that the present generation of aged would have no protection, inasmuch as it would take

³ *Parl. Debates*, 4th ser., CLXXXVIII, 463-476; *Quarterly Review*, vol. CCIX (July, 1908), pp. 144-167; Louis D. Brandeis, "Our New Peonage: Discretionary Pensions," in the *Independent*, vol. LXXIII (July 25, 1912), pp. 187-191.

another generation before benefits would begin to be paid.⁴

Chief, however, of the objections directed against both of these schemes was the effect upon the financial structure of capitalistic society. Thorough-going collectivists pointed out that funds accumulated from contributions would present a problem. If the worker was to get the full benefit of the money in his old age, profitable investments would have to be found for the huge reserves in the interim. But it was to be doubted whether there would be available sufficient opportunities to invest the funds collected under contributory schemes without disturbing and breaking up the very foundations on which the investments of the country rested. The frequent insolvencies among the mutual societies in the past were partly owing to the hazards of investment. Furthermore, it was likely that an excess of savings would not only cheapen the money market but would also cut consumption, with the result that the working class would save themselves into unemployment.⁵

Non-contributory schemes, on the other hand, would avoid such disastrous consequences for the economic structure. How much better and simpler would it be to have the money come from annual earnings drawn through the channel of State taxation. The broader claim was made that the money poured out would be quickly put back in circulation. The enlargement of the spending powers of the aged would result in an increased demand for fuel, food, and shelter, so that there would be additional employment. It is interesting thus to note that several decades before Dr. Townsend was outlining his case for a liberal pension from the State, English partisans were already using identical briefs. Adversaries were not slow in appearing when the literature of the sponsors indicated that they would seek the funds through the imposition of a

⁴ *Parl. Debates*, 4th ser., CLXIX, 238; CLXXIV, 483-495; CLXXXVIII, 463-476; CLXL, 564-586, 596-613, 660-672, 726-740; Joseph Chamberlain, "Old Age Pension," in the *National Review*, vol. XVIII (February, 1892), pp. 722-723; Harold Spender, "The Government and Old Age Pensions," in the *Contemporary Review*, vol. LXLIII (January, 1908), pp. 97-98; Guernsey Jones, "Old Age Pensions in England," in the *American Review of Reviews*, vol. XXXVIII (September, 1903), p. 345.

⁵ *Parl. Debates*, 4th ser., CLXXIV, 508-510; CLXL, 726-740; CLXLI, 1343-1416. Whether the government of the United States will circumvent this danger by investing the accumulations from pension contributions in national bonds remains to be seen.

graduated income tax, a ground value tax, a higher inheritance tax, and royalties from mines. Such a course would be suicidal, for British industry, overladen with operating charges, would never be able to compete with foreign merchants in international markets. In this eventuality, England would find it difficult not only to take care of its old but also its able-bodied citizens.⁶

Equally heated was the debate as to the probable effects of a non-contributory pension upon the upright character and sturdy independence of the citizen. Many still clung to the belief that poverty was the product of vice. Tennyson's Northern Farmer was right when he said "Take my word for it, Sammy, the poor in a loomp is bad." If, then, the poor were encouraged to depend entirely upon society for aid in their declining days, even greater inducements would be offered for loose living during their active years. The result in the long run would mean a dissolute and demoralized citizenry. The parallel was drawn of the custom of the Sunday holiday compelling a man to spread his six day salary for seven, and yet nobody proposed that the State should subvene his Sabbath. If the will were there, and it was the State's duty to bring it out if civilization were to advance, the means could be found. As an answer to these arguments, many collectivists were willing to limit eligibility for a pension to certain conditions. They hoped that qualifications of character, industry, and income would allay the apprehensions of the proponents of building moral fiber as well as bring the cost within reason. Denmark, New Zealand, and Australia were cited as operating successfully under a conditional non-contributory scheme. British socialists, however, took up the cudgel in defense of the worker, pressing the view that if it was understood that the pension was not a consequence of poverty but a civil right to every man and woman who had conformed to the laws of the country it would be difficult to see how it would encourage loose living. That the State was already granting rewards for services rendered to the country was pointed out in the pensions given to soldiers, sailors, and civil servants. Surely the veterans of industry were entitled to the same treatment as veterans of war. The cold logic of economic theory itself would bear out these statements. The employer was the servant of the public and really the employee of the consumer.

⁶Parl. Debates, 4th ser., CLXIX, 238 *et seq*; CLXXIV, 470-477.

At the dictate of the latter, who consumed or did not consume his goods, he hired and dismissed men. The employer was really no more than a straw floating down the stream of demand. Therefore the "scars and scabs" of the man with the hoe were as worthy of recognition as those incurred by the soldiers from the instruments of war. In the words of Ruskin "Even a laborer serves his country with his spade and shovel as the statesman does with his pen or the soldier with his sword."⁷

The triumph of the Liberal party in the election of 1906 on a platform of free trade and social reform forecast a decision on old age pension schemes. The surprising development was the declaration by Herbert H. Asquith, Prime Minister, in May, 1908, that, since it was the aged pauper who needed a pension, he would sponsor a conditional non-contributory scheme. To every one over seventy, residents of England for twenty years, and in receipt during that time of less than ten shillings per week, excluding criminals, lunatics, and paupers, there would be given the weekly sum of five shillings with a reduction for two living together so that their total would be only seven shillings eight pence. It was estimated that about five hundred thousand would be eligible and that the cost would be about six million pounds a year. To secure the pension the applicant would be supplied at the post office with a form which he would fill out with the aid of the local postmaster. Then it would be transmitted to the local pension authority, which would be a committee elected by the councils of the local administrative units. To effect a central control in each district, a pension officer would be present, the excise man. If the committee and the officer agreed, then the pension would be granted. If there was a difference, an appeal would be taken to the Local Government Board. To the eligible applicants coupons would then be issued, which could be exchanged at the post office for ready money.⁸

When the Bill was read for a second time, the members of the Conservative party opposed it vigorously. Their main

⁷ *Parl. Debates*, 4th ser., CLXIX, 216 *et seq.*; CLXXII, 1237; CLXXIV, 470-483, 495-501, 521-523; CLXL, 640-647; Thomas Burt, "Old Age Pensions," in the *Nineteenth Century*, vol. LX (September, 1906), p. 373.

⁸ *Parl. Debates*, 4th ser., CLXXXVIII, 463-476; *The Outlook*, vol. LXXXIX (July 18, 1908), pp. 591-592; *Independent*, vol. LXIV (May 14, 1908), pp. 1063-1064; *Quarterly Review*, vol. CCIX (July, 1908), pp. 157-159.

objection was the failure of the Government to state how the necessary revenue was to be provided. If the funds were secured by the means advocated by the supporters of the scheme, it would be a definite gift out of the pockets of the general taxpayer to a particular class who possessed very large electoral powers. If not, what Mr. Asquith was really doing then was calculating upon "something turning up" to supply the money, a piece of unabashed Micawberism. Aware, however, that sentiment in the House was strongly in favor of the Bill, some of the Conservatives endeavored to couple it with tariff reform. If the revenue were obtained through the imposition of duties on imports, an equitable solution of the problem of finances would have been found and the industrial structure would be able to sustain the extra cost. Since the vote on the second reading produced only twenty-nine against and over four hundred in favor of the measure, the advisability of parading before the reader the technical changes urged and those made is open to question. Yet it can scarcely be gainsaid that the public should have some insight into the technical difficulties of a scheme which the British regarded highly as well as an acquaintance with the more fundamental concepts involved by the various schemes. It is with this conviction in mind as well as once more the academic one of truth for truth's sake that the parliamentary discussion of the Bill is offered. One word of caution, however, is necessary. While the material is handled in general without much allusion to party strife, it should be remembered that behind the debate was the desire of the Conservative party to demonstrate the impracticability of the plan and the desire of the Labor party to prove that only a universal non-contributory scheme would work.⁹

The conditions necessary for an aged person to qualify evoked the sharpest comments. The rigid income limit of ten shillings was assailed as an inducement to make false returns of one's income and to accept voluntarily a slight reduction in wages in order to come within the limits of eligibility. To avoid this danger, at least partially, it was urged that the contributions which a worker made to a friendly

⁹*Parl. Debates*, 4th ser., CLXIX, 265; CLXL, 613-618; *Independent*, vol. LXIV (May 14, 1908), pp. 1063; *Spectator*, vol. c (May 9, 1908), pp. 732-733; Guernsey Jones, "Old Age Pensions in England," in the *American Review of Reviews*, vol. XXXVIII (September, 1908), pp. 346.

benefit society should be excluded from his net income in determining his right to an old age pension. The Labor party favored a sliding scale as the way out. Lloyd George objected on the ground that the Budget could not afford both and that the first consideration was to assure the poor some relief in their old age. The support given the proposal, however, influenced him to accept a scale extending from eight to thirteen shillings income, with a pension range from one to five shillings.¹⁰

Especially disliked by Labor was the stiff age limit. It was wrong to establish an arbitrary age for failing mental and physical powers. As thus constituted, the Bill would be of benefit chiefly to the poor in rural areas. Statistics disclosed that the average age of such tradesmen as compositors, carpenters, bricklayers, stone masons, and engineers was in the fifties. Arthur Henderson, a trade union leader at this time, claimed that hundreds between the ages of fifty and fifty-five were being refused employment if they showed any tendency to stoop or if they had grey hairs. Employers naturally feared that accidents were more prone to occur in their case, with the consequent entailment of heavy compensation costs. The Government, however, would only promise to deal in the future with those who were infirm and below seventy. It was a distinct gain at this moment to have established the principle of social security. At a later date the degree of extension could be taken up.¹¹

The provision that those in receipt of poor relief as of January 1, 1908, would be excluded, was pronounced an unfair discrimination. While the attempt to discourage able-bodied men from seeking relief in their active years was to be lauded, most of those affected by this clause as a matter of fact had become paupers because of adverse industrial conditions. In any case, those paupers should be given consideration who had once been members of friendly societies which had gone insolvent. The fact that the restraining date was not known until this month (July, 1908) would indubitably result in many instances where a person had struggled to stay off the relief

¹⁰ *Parl. Debates*, 4th ser., CLXXXVIII, 526-532; CLXXXIX, 780-796; CLXL, 564-586, 618-626, 626-632, 726-740, 1530-1635; CLXLI, 1343-1416; *Quarterly Review*, vol. CCIX (July, 1908), pp. 161-162.

¹¹ *Parl. Debates*, 4th ser., CLXIX, 233; CLXXXVIII, 526-532; CLXXXIX, 846-852; CLXL, 564-586, 618-626, 654, 726-740; CLXLI, 1489-1592; *Independent*, vol. LXIV (May 14, 1908), pp. 1063.

roll for many years and then had finally succumbed in the last year or two. While the Government remained adamant on this point, assurance was obtained that relief measures which did not disqualify for parliamentary elections, such as medical aid and free vaccination and meals for school children, would not be considered as in receipt of poor relief. The concurrence of the Conservatives in the attitude that the clause was unnecessarily cruel was parried by the Government with the statement that if the scheme had been contributory paupers would not have got on at all. Indeed they should welcome such a provision, since it excluded those who refused to take care of themselves. That the Conservatives might have something else in mind besides humanitarian compunctions was not overlooked. The Government was aware that if the disqualification was removed at once it would add to the cost and thus so tax the financial resources of the State as to impair the popularity of the measure. To quiet the rising storm, however, the Government promised that pauper disqualification would be dealt with not later than December 31, 1910, by which time it was hoped that the Poor Law Commission, which was investigating the existing set-up, would have made its report.¹²

The absence of any character test outside of criminality and lunacy was a matter of deep concern to many. The pension should be conditional upon right living. The Government, amidst much levity, pointed out the obstacles present in applying such character tests as gambling, idleness, and drunkenness. In many instances it would be open to question as to whether purchasing shares of stock was not as much a gamble as betting on the horse races. Although many contended that the ordinary legislator cultivated leisure and only the members below the gangway "wasted time," it would be difficult to insist, in the light of contemporary Cabinet supremacy, that listening to much of the oratory in the Commons was not idleness. Even greater difficulty could be expected when it came to defining drunkenness, for there were many brands—half-stewed, half-drunk, steadily drunk, talkatively drunk, quarrelsome drunk, maudlin drunk, and

¹²*Parl. Debates*, 4th ser., CLXL, 564-586, 618-626, 726-740, 1530-1635, 1737-1836; CLXLI, 382-491, 1498-1592; Guernsey Jones, "Old Age Pensions in England," in the *American Review of Reviews*, vol. XXXVIII (September, 1908), pp. 345. *

dead drunk. Lloyd George assured the Commons, furthermore, that, if temperance agitators were correct, drunkards would not live to be seventy and so there was no need concerning themselves with that problem. If they did live, he continued quite banally, they would have earned the right to a pension by reason of having contributed to the coffers of the nation in liquor taxes.¹³

The details of the administrative set-up did not escape criticism. Labor asserted frankly that many of their amendments were to so specify things as to leave little to the discretion of the pension authorities. It was feared that in the rural districts the pension committees would be composed of small squires, parsons, farmers, and retired aristocrats, who would treat the agricultural laborer harshly. It was not at all unlikely that they would develop into bureaucracies as unsympathetic as boards of guardians. Still others regarded the use of the excise man with some degree of apprehension. He would not be so well in touch with local life as would the magistrate, the county court judge, or the registrar of births, marriages, and deaths. The forms to be filled out by the pensioner were held to be unduly intricate. It was not at all improbable that the American system of claim agents, common in the case of war pensions, would make its appearance in England. Many might be influenced to pay a year's pension if they were persuaded that to turn in defective blanks might mean the permanent loss of the pension.¹⁴

Amidst much rejoicing the Bill received the royal assent on August 1, 1908, and by January 1, 1909, it was estimated that close to 600,000 out of 650,000 claims had been allowed. Within the next four years the number mounted rapidly, aggregating over 900,000 by 1913, extending to three-fifths of those over seventy. The explanation for this large increase was the removal in 1911 of the unsatisfactory and arbitrary pauper disqualification clause. That there were defects disclosed shortly was not denied by its proponents. In large cities the pension was declared to be inadequate, several cases of starvation actually being recorded. To prevent such plights

¹³ *Parl. Debates*, 4th ser., CLXXXIX, 843-846, 870; CLXLI, 1489-1592.

¹⁴ *Parl. Debates*, 4th ser., CLXLI, 591-709, 780-900, 1343-1416, 1489-1592; CLXLII, 106-204; *Independent*, vol. LXV (July 23, 1908), pp. 174-175; Guernsey Jones, "Old Age Pensions in England," in the *American Review of Reviews*, vol. XXXVIII (September, 1908), pp. 345-346.

from escaping attention, it was urged that friendly visitors be appointed to maintain contact with the recipients. Another source of irritation was the data necessary to prove the requisite age. In 1914 it was announced that out of 41,000 new applicants, over 17,000 were rejected because of inability to furnish proof that they were over seventy.¹⁵

To conclude, what lessons are to be learned from the foregoing story? It is quite evident that no scheme is perfect and foolproof. There are possible technical loopholes in every proposed plan. It would appear that the type of plan adopted should take into consideration (1) whom it is desired to protect and (2) how to do it with the least possible injury to the progress of the current civilization. The opinion is ventured here, accordingly, that a non-contributory scheme is necessary to provide a minimum pension for those so unfortunate as to be destitute in old age. The recent depression has disclosed the fact that the worker is not the only one apt to be without subsistence at the end of the long trail. Many are the members of the middle and upper classes adrift on the street to-day who could tell of years of effort given to building up a reserve for a well-earned rest in their old age. At any rate no human being should have to face the prospect of a miserable end. For those who desire a larger pension or a pension at an earlier age an opportunity should be afforded to a certain limited extent through a contributory scheme guaranteed by the credit of the nation. This has been the procedure followed in European countries since the recent war.

¹⁵F. Spencer Baldwin, "Non-Contributory Pensions," in the *American Labor Legislation Review*, vol. III (June, 1913) pp. 206-208; Katherine Coman, "The Problem of Old Age Pensions in England," in the *Survey*, vol. XXXI (February 21, 1914), pp. 640-642; *Outlook*, vol. CLXLI (March 13, 1919), pp. 571-573; *North American Review*, vol. CLXXXIX (February, 1909), pp. 304-307; Harold Spender, "The Government and Old Age Pensions," in the *Contemporary Review*, vol. LXLIII (January, 1908), p. 107; P. Tecumseh Sherman, *Report to Committee on Pensions Welfare Department*, The National Civic Federation, February, 1928, quoted in Lamar F. Beman, *Selected Articles of Old Age Pensions* (New York, 1927), p. 315.

IDENTIFICATION ELEMENTS OF ADVERTISING SLOGANS

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Certain American advertising slogans have been familiar words for a generation. Thousands of other such mottoes, altho possibly not so well known, are considered valuable advertising tools by their owners. Slogan studies have usually been based upon the subjective reaction of individuals to a series of slogans, it has been noted, as far as identification elements are concerned.¹

The present study has sought to measure certain general characteristics of the advertising slogan, as determined from a sample of 4,022 slogans, and to give particular attention to the point of the presence or absence of three concrete identification elements, namely, firm-name, brand-name, and product-name. The statistical result of the investigation seems to show, if these 4,022 mottoes are representative of their field, that what a slogan contains by theoretical statement and what it contains in reality are two different things. In the case of practically 60 per cent of the total sample examined, for instance, the name of the product, the name of the firm, and the brand were all missing, altho it has been said, "The principle can be laid down that the slogan should either incorporate the name of the product, the name of the advertiser, or have such direct relationship to the advertised commodity that it would be difficult for the slogan to be uttered without the name of the product being recalled."²

In relatively few cases was there either literal or practical compliance with what may be termed (with a bow to the *Portland Journal*) the Slogan Rule of Three, i.e., mention of firm, brand, and product in the motto.

It would seem reasonable that a slogan, which identifies the producer or distributor, mentions the sort of product

¹The investigation of Marion K. Nolan, of the Market Research Corporation of America, entitled, "How Good Is Your Slogan?" as published in *Market Research*, p. 9, December, 1935, is an illustration. "It shows beyond question that steady repetition of a phrase in relation to a product does not always establish the single-track connection which it intends, and in some instances even detours the desired result into competing channels." p. 12.

²Hall, S. Roland, *Advertising Handbook*, (2d Ed.) 1930, p. 196.

or service, and stresses the brand, should accomplish its task more successfully than one lacking in such concrete identification aspects, if it be conceded that the value of a slogan lies in the ease with which retention and recall are effected and favorable action stimulated. In illustration of this point, consider two widely known slogans:

"When Better Automobiles Are Built, Buick Will Build Them"

"Standard of the World"

In the first example, there is practical compliance with the Slogan Rule of Three, suggested above, in that brand, product, and firm are mentioned, while, in the second instance, the slogan is a complete generalization. As a matter of fact, the second slogan is claimed by at least two great American manufacturers in widely separated fields.

Three objections may be advanced to the implication that a slogan containing a larger share of the identification elements suggested above, other things being equal, should be more readily held in mind and recalled. The first argument is that certain general or indefinite type slogans are readily associated with firm and product, if brand only is included in the slogan, or even if no one of the three identification elements is contained in the slogan. This theory says that the public remembers the slogan, not for itself, but because of constant repetition in association with the trade name and symbol of the product. In illustration of the argument, let us take the second slogan listed in the paragraph above—"Standard of the World." The argument would admit that in and of itself "Standard of the World" is not very identifying. But millions of people, when they see that slogan, literally, or in their minds, are presumed to link it with the "Cadillac" coat of arms and the name of "Cadillac."

It is not to be doubted that some of this association takes place, especially for those goods which have a long record of intensive advertising effort. But the slogan is not "standing on its own feet," as has been implied in many characterizations of the slogan.

The second objection to the hypothesis of this paper is found in the assertion that, for some if not all products, association of brand and firm-name in the slogan, or at any time in the potential purchaser's mind, is unnecessary. There is probably something in this argument, especially where

a very limited line is being presented and there is no particular desire to carry over the prestige factor from one line to another thru the common link of a common manufacturer. However, the very common identity of firm-name and brand-name, pointed out later in this study, seems to show that advertisers do typically associate the two elements in their slogans by these methods.

The desirability of association of brand-name and product-name does not seem to be subject to criticism from the angle just discussed, but it may be suggested that for certain goods the manufacturer has no particular desire to associate brand and product under separate names, but rather seeks to make the brand name highly generic. This is the third objection to the thesis advanced above. An illustration would be, presumptively, the name "Kodak," which by common acceptance has come to mean *not only an Eastman camera* but the ordinary form of camera in general, regardless of its maker. And therein lies the cause of much irritation on the part of those who may have started out to make the particular brand stand for product also, but who have found that it may be widely taken to represent the competitor's product also. Hence the attempt of the Eastman company to insist that "Kodak" does *not* mean "Camera," but means "Eastman Camera." All of which is probably productive of confusion in the customer's mind and hard feelings among producers.

It must be remembered that this study does not say that all slogans which lack mention of brand, firm, and product-names are bad slogans. The main purpose of this study is a statistical one. Certain apparent facts will be pointed out in regard to the slogans studied, as to frequency occurrences. However, the writer is somewhat inclined to believe that, other things being equal, the more identification elements which can be included in the slogan for the average product, the easier it will be for the customer to recall that slogan.

To provide a sample for study, all lists of slogans published by *Printer's Ink Weekly*, in its registration service for slogans, over the period 1919-1935 were checked, and any duplications of entry eliminated. When this task was completed, it was found there remained 4,012 advertising slogans. Since this source was employed primarily as a matter of convenience in assembling the slogans, and not because of any peculiar characteristics believed to be found in the mottoes registered

with *Printer's Ink*, no inconsistency was seen in adding to this list 10 more slogans, widely known and observed in the latter part of the period 1919-1935. Thus a total of 4,022 slogans were prepared for examination.³

It was felt that it would be desirable to compare the nature of this general list of mottoes with a selected group, a group selected on the basis of wide use. There was no attempt to employ subjective judgment by picking "good" slogans for this second group. Therefore, from the group of 4,022 entries, 100 were selected, the determining factor being frequent observation in the daily press and consumer and trade journals. The two lists, that of 4,022 slogans, and that of 100 slogans, were designated Group I and Group II, respectively.

By reference to Table I, it will be seen that the slogans of Group I averaged 5.36 words per slogan, in contrast to the 4.8 words per slogan of Group II. Also, in the case of Group I, a word-content range of 2-21 words was noted, in comparison with the word content range of 2-12 words in the case of Group II.

A multi-modal concentration about 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 words per slogan may be noted in Group I, with a rapid tailing-off in the distribution from that point on. Only a minor percentage of the slogans possessed more than 9 words. In the case of Group II, a heavy concentration on 3 and 4-word slogans was apparent.

Table II offers perhaps the outstanding comparison of the two lists of mottoes, with a remarkable agreement found in the per cent of slogans failing to comply with the Slogan Rule of Three suggested above, i.e., failing to mention brand, product, or firm (either individually or by identity of two of the three characters). In the case of Group I, more than 59 per cent of the 4,022 slogans failed to mention either brand, product, or firm, while in the case of Group II, exactly 60

³Many cases were found of firms with entire groups of slogans. Outstanding exponents of the many-slogan policy include Guinness Ale, with 16, Ohio Brass, with 16, American Chain, with 15, Coleman Lamp, with 11, American Gas Machine, with 11, and American Tobacco, with 9. In this group Guinness Ale perhaps stands out for the use of a type of slogan with a fundamental similarity running thru the individual mottoes.

The 4,022 slogans were derived from 3,148 firms, an average of 1.277 slogans per company.

per cent of the 100 slogans likewise failed to comply with this measure of concreteness in identification.

To summarize the facts of Table II, in the case of Group I, in 7 out of 4,022 instances, the firm only was mentioned; in 123 cases, both firm and brand were mentioned; in 128 cases, brand of product only was mentioned; in 1193 cases, product only was mentioned; in 64 cases, brand and product were mentioned; in 8 cases, firm and product were mentioned; in 124 cases, firm, brand, and product were mentioned; and in 2375 cases, no one of the three identifying elements was found.

Group II slogans included none which mentioned the firm only, none which mentioned brand and product, and none mentioning firm and product. In 1 instance, brand only was mentioned; in 10 cases, firm and brand were given; in 23 cases, product only was listed; in 6 cases, firm, brand, and product were listed; and in the case of 60 out of the 100 slogans, none of the three elements was included.

It will be noted from examination of this second table that Group II slogans surpassed Group I in including slogans mentioning the three-fold elements. This was also the situation with firms mentioning firm and brand, in the two groups, but the absence of any brand and product, or firm and product figures, in the case of Group II, forbids the drawing of a certain conclusion that the slogans of Group II contain more concrete mention of the identification elements than do those of Group I.

Illustrative of the various categories of identification elements under Groups I and II are the following sample slogans:

1. Mention of brand only:
 - a. Group I—"It Pays To Demand *Great Seal* Brand—Get the Habit," Styron-Beggs Company.
 - b. Group II—"Man To Man, *Roi-Tan*," American Cigar Company.
2. Mention of brand and product:
 - a. Group I—"If It's a *Garland* That Is All You Need Know About a *Stove Or Range*," Michigan Stove Company.
 - b. Group II—None.
3. Mention of product only:
 - a. Group I—"Just a Darn Good *Shaving Cream*," Commercial Laboratories, Inc.
 - b. Group II—"The Antiseptic *Liniment*," W. F. Young, Inc.

4. Mention of company name only:
 - a. Group I—"If It's New—*Saps* Has It," M. J. Saps Shoe Company.
 - b. Group II—None.
5. Mention of company and brand:
 - a. Group I—"There's No *Radiolite* But the *Ingersoll Radiolite*," Ingersoll Watch Company.
 - b. Group II—"If It Isn't An *Eastman* It Isn't a *Kodak*," Eastman Kodak Company.
6. Mention of company and product:
 - a. Group I—"Fire Insurance Is As Old As the *Sun*," Sun Insurance Office.
 - b. Group II—None.
7. Mention of company, brand, and product:
 - a. Group I—"There Is Only One *In-A-Dor Bed*—the *Murphy*," Murphy Door Bed Company.
 - b. Group II—"More People Ride On *Goodyear Tires* Than On Any Other Kind."
8. Mention of no one of the three identifying elements:
 - a. Group I—"Ask Any Owner," Buckeye Traction Ditcher Company.
 - b. Group II—"Built To Endure," Certain-Teed Products Corporation.

Attention is now directed to Table III in which are found summarized the instances in which firm and brand were discovered to be identical or substantially identical in wording. In Group I, of 247 possibilities (determined by adding the number of firm-and-brand slogans to the number of firm-brand-and-product slogans) in 238 cases it was found there was substantial or exact identity of firm and brand. "Have a Glass Of Guinness When You're Tired" is an illustration selected from the list of slogans including mention of firm and brand only. An illustration of the duplication selected from the firm-brand-and-product list of slogans is, "There's a Merton Cap Or Hat For Every Sport." The former slogan is the property of Messrs. Arthur Guinness Son & Company, the latter belonging to Chas. S. Merton & Company.

In Group II, of 16 possibilities of identity of firm and brand, determined as indicated above in the case of Group I, 15 instances of duplication were found. "Keep Regular With Ex-Lax," a slogan of the Ex-Lax Company, represents the list of slogans including mention of firm and brand only. The motto, "U. S. Tires Are Good Tires," offers an illustration of substantial identity, where firm-brand-and-product were found in the slogan.

As a matter of fact, in only one case out of the 4,022 slogans examined in Group I do we find the Slogan Rule of Three presented with a clear distinction drawn between firm, brand, and product. In all other instances, firm and brand were identical, or substantially so. The single exception found was the illustration cited above, "There Is Only One In-A-Dor Bed—the Murphy," which is sponsored by the Murphy Door Bed Company of New York. An instance of the Rule of Three as commonly found, with firm and brand the same, is the slogan, "If It Hasn't This Red Woven Label, It Isn't B. V. D. Underwear," a motto sponsored by the B. V. D. Company.

There would seem to be practical agreement, then, between Groups I and II, in connection with this question of identity of firm and brand in advertising slogan use. American business houses, if we may judge by this study, apparently definitely prefer to lessen the complexity of organization of the slogan, and are trying to ease recall by making firm and brand either the same, or substantially so, in employing the Rule of Three.⁴

Appended will be found listed the 100 slogans constituting Group II.

GROUP II SLOGANS

1. "All the News That's Fit to Print."
2. "All You Want for a Nickel."
3. "An American Institution."
4. "Antiseptic Liniment, The."
5. "Are You Aetna-ized?"
6. "Ask the Man Who Owns One."
7. "Best by Test."
8. "Best in the Long Run."
9. "Bread Is Your Best Food, Eat More of It."
10. "Built to Endure."
11. "Candy Mint With the Hole."
12. "Cannot Burn or Explode."
13. "Oar for Every Purse and Purpose, A."
14. "Chases Dirt."
15. "Clean Tooth Never Decays, A."
16. "Cleans Teeth the Right Way."
17. "Coffee That Lets You Sleep, The."

⁴As an illustration of *substantial* identity, consider the slogan, "Are You Aetna-ized?", used by the Aetna Life Insurance Company.

18. "Colliers—The National Weekly."
19. "Compare the Work."
20. "Correct Writing Paper, The."
21. "Cover the Earth."
22. "Crane Beauty in the Open: Crane Quality in All Hidden Fittings."
23. "Delicious and Refreshing."
24. "Eventually—Why Not Now?"
25. "Flavor Lasts, The."
26. "File for Every Purpose."
27. "Favorite Breakfast Food of Millions, The."
28. "For Economical Transportation."
29. "For the Gums."
30. "For the Man Who Cares."
31. "For Young Men and Men with Young Ideas."
32. "For Young Men and Men Who Stay Young."
33. "Famous for Its Flavor."
34. "Foods of Finest Flavor."
35. "From Contented Cows."
36. "Ginger Ale Supreme."
37. "Goes a Long Way to Make Friends."
38. "Guinness Is Good for You."
39. "Hallmark of Quality, The."
40. "Hammer the Hammer."
41. "Ham What Am, The."
42. "Hasn't Scratched Yet."
43. "If It Hasn't This Red Woven Label, It isn't B. V. D. Underwear."
44. "If It Isn't An Eastman, It Isn't a Kodak."
45. "If It's Done With Heat You Can Do It Better With Gas."
46. "Instrument of the Immortals, The."
47. "I'se in Town, Honey."
48. "It Beats—As It Sweeps—As It Cleans."
49. "It's Toasted."
50. "Keep Regular With Ex-Lax."
51. "Leads the World in Motor Car Value."
52. "Let Your Pup Be Your Furnace Man."
53. "Light That Never Fails, The."
54. "Long Life Battery For Your Car, The."
55. "Man to Man, Roi-Tan."
56. "Makes Every Meal an Event."
57. "Mark Every Grave."
58. "More People Ride on Goodyear Tires Than on Any Other Kind."
59. "Motorists Wise Simoniz."

60. " 'Mum' Is the Word."
61. "Nation's Host From Coast to Coast, The."
62. "99 44-100% Pure—It Floats."
63. "No Metal Can Touch You."
64. "No Springs—Honest Weight."
65. "Not a Cough in a Carload."
66. "One of the 57."
67. "Photographs Live Forever."
68. "Plymouth Builds Great Cars."
69. "Preferred the World Over."
70. "Prudential Has the Strength of Gibraltar, The."
71. "Quick—Pleasant—Reliable."
72. "Railroad Timekeeper of America, The."
73. "Removes the Dingy Film."
74. "Say It With Flowers."
75. "Send It to the Laundry."
76. "Skin You Love to Touch, The."
77. "Slip Into a Bradley and Out-of-Doors."
78. "Spendable Everywhere."
79. "Standard of the World."
80. "Standard of the Mechanical World."
81. "Take the Sheltered Route to Europe."
82. "There's a Reason."
83. "They Satisfy and Yet They're Mild."
84. "Time to Re-tire?"
85. "Tower of Strength, A."
86. "Universal Car, The."
87. "U. S. Tires Are Good Tires."
88. "Utility Business Paper, The."
89. "Voice With the Smile Wins, The."
90. "What a Whale of a Difference a Few Cents Make."
91. "When Better Automobiles Are Built, Buick Will Build Them."
92. "When It Rains It Pours."
93. "Where Economy Rules."
94. "While There's Life There's Hope."
95. "Won Its Favor Thru Its Flavor."
96. "World's Greatest Newspaper, The."
97. "World's Greatest Travel System."
98. "Worn With Pride by Millions."
99. "You Just Know She Wears Them."
100. "You Press the Button—We Do the Rest."

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF WORDS IN SLOGANS

Words	Group I		Group II	
	Number of Slogans	Per Cent of Slogans	Number of Slogans	Per Cent of Slogans
1	0	0	0	0
2	106	2.6	3	3
3	577	14.3	23	23
4	865	21.5	25	25
5	876	21.8	17	17
6	659	16.4	12	12
7	412	10.2	8	8
8	218	5.5	4	4
9	136	3.4	3	3
10	71	1.8	1	1
11	45	1.1	3	3
12	26	.65	1	1
13	12	.3		
14	6	.15		
15	4	.1		
16	3	.07		
17	3	.07		
18	1	.02		
19	0	0		
20	1	.02		
21	1	.02		
Total	4,022	100.00	100	100.00
Average	5.36		4.8	

TABLE II
IDENTIFICATION ELEMENTS OF SLOGANS

Identifi- cation	Group I		Group II	
	Number of Slogans	Per Cent of Slogans	Number of Slogans	Per Cent of Slogans
Firm Only	7	.18	0	0
Firm- Brand	123	3.06	10	10
Firm- Brand- Product	124	3.08	6	6
Brand- Product	64	1.50	0	0
Brand Only	128	3.18	1	1
Product Only	1193	29.66	23	23
Firm- Product	8	.3	0	0
No Identifying Mention	2375	59.05	60	60
Total	4,022	100.00	100	100.00

TABLE III
INSTANCES OF FIRM-BRAND IDENTITY

	Possible Cases of Firm-Brand Identity	Actual Cases of Firm-Brand Identity	Per Cent
Group I	247	238	96.35
Group II	16	15	93.75

BRITISH LOANS TO THE MEXICAN GOVERNMENT 1822-1832

(A Decade of Nineteenth Century Financial Imperialism)

C. ALLEN TRUE
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The hold that Spain had maintained over Mexico from the penetration of that region by Cortés in 1519-1520 was continually weakened until 1808-1809, when a series of revolts were begun, which meant the end of Spanish domination in this area. With the declaration of political independence in 1821, the great commercial powers saw the doors of opportunity opened to them, when the newly established Republic of Mexico declared in favor of foreign commercial, industrial, and financial enterprises.

The British government withheld political recognition for a time, using it as a pawn for further economic privileges. The British merchant, on the contrary, was quick to discern economic possibilities in this newly formed Republic, did not wait for Mexico to prove its stability or for Great Britain to extend political recognition, but began a steady trek to this new area, which was possessed of such brilliant economic opportunities.

It remained for Canning to extend political recognition in the name of His Royal Majesty in January, 1825, a step which had been brought about almost exclusively by the financial interests of Great Britain. Much rejoicing, particularly in Mexico, followed this step. The British merchants were over-joyed, for they felt sure that a treaty of commerce would be arrived at almost immediately. From London the Mexican agent wrote:

The Supreme Head of all things, who directs the fate of Nations, has seen the merits and sacrifices of ours, . . . and has decided the great cause in our favor. Everything is complete: England recognizes our independence.¹

Mexico City was the scene of celebrations lasting an entire week. President Victoria went in state to the Church and offered thanks to the Almighty for favors which had been bestowed, particularly that of British recognition.²

¹ Morier to Canning, No. 22, March 12, 1825, contains this as an enclosure. Consult Foreign Office, No. 50, 11.

² Matamoros Archives (Matamoros, Mexico), XI, 189.

The phase of British-Mexican financial relations, which led to the greatest amount of friction and the most serious consequences to both parties, was the Mexican loans and debts contracted in Great Britain.

An outstanding result of the struggle for independence was the disastrous financial confusion.

Shortly after establishing its independence, the nation, instead of introducing a system of economy in the public expenditure, began to create, without either rule or measure, numberless offices and pensions; and instead of modifying with prudence and judgment the Spanish financial system, the existing arrangements were swept away with a lamentable want of consideration. Thence arose the necessity of having recourse to loans.³

While lacking the necessary training in finances, and yet evincing an earnest desire to establish their new state on what was hoped to be a firm basis, Mexico began contracting for loans in London, and the *English debt* made its appearance.⁴

The first direct negotiation for a foreign loan was incorporated in a decree of June 25, 1822, which authorized the government to make a loan of twenty-five or thirty millions. After certain financial maneuvering, the Mexican government contracted with S. Diego Barry for a loan of ten millions of dollars, but since this party was destitute the result was that his drafts were protested in London, and as a consequence, the first negotiations were doomed to failure.⁵

By virtue of a decree of the General Congress, dated May 1, 1823, the first loan was negotiated in London. Francisco de Borja Migoni was commissioned to treat for the Mexican government. The agent entered into a contract with B. A. Goldschmidt and Company, who purchased £3,200,000, or sixteen millions of dollars, of five per cent bonds on a basis of fifty per cent, pledging all the revenues of Mexico as

³ *Dictamen de la comisión de crédito público de la cámara de diputados, sobre el arreglo de la deuda Inglesa* (Mexico, 1850), 2.

⁴ Francisco Bulnes, *La deuda Inglesa. Colección de artículos publicados en el "Siglo XIX"* (Mexico, 1885), 4.

⁵ Niceto Zamacois, *Historia general de Méjico* (Mexico and Barcelona, 1879), XI, 519-520; Lucas Alaman, *Liquidación general de la deuda contraída por la República en el exterior con una historia de los contratos de que procede. Por comisión de Emco. Sr. Ministro de Hacienda, por cuya orden se publica* (Mexico, 1845), 3-4. The power conceded to Iturbide to promulgate such a loan was declared null and void by a decree of May 1, 1823, which also proposed a new loan.

security.⁶ Proceeds of this loan were eight millions of dollars, with deduction of \$2,301,700 to cover interest and amortization. Thus Mexico received only £1,139,660, or \$5,698,300.⁷ a balance settled by drafts on London and by actual shipments of gold to Mexico.⁸ Although the government received only a little more than one million pounds sterling from this loan, they were forced to pay interest at the rate of five per cent on over three million pounds sterling, which in actuality forced the rate of interest to fifteen per cent. This transaction, introducing a series of loans ruinous in their final results, portrayed the dangers of a credit system.

A modern writer compares the discovery of credit with the discovery of gunpowder, and affirms that the former has produced a revolution just as decisive for the power of governments, as the second produced in instruments of war; . . .⁹

Scarcely had word reached Mexico of the success of the first loan before a second one was negotiated. The authority for this was a law passed on August 27, 1823, which provided for a loan of the same amount as the first, £3,200,000. This one, however, was on the basis of eighty-six per cent, and the rate of interest was six per cent. The purchasers on this occasion were Barclay, Herring, Richardson and Company, through the agents, Manning and Marshall. After the deduction of certain amortization and interest the total of the loan received by the Mexican government amounted to

⁶For more detailed information relative to the negotiation of the first loan consult: Bulnes, *op. cit.*, 36-37; Matías Romero, *Memoria de Hacienda y Crédito Público, correspondiente al cuadragésimoquinto año económico* (Mexico, 1870), 73; Luis Manuel del Rivero, *Méjico en 1842* (Madrid, 1844), 178; *Dictamen de la comisión de crédito público de la cámara de diputados, sobre el arreglo de la deuda Inglesa*, 3. Rivero places the rate of interest at eight per cent, but this seems to be out of keeping with all other authorities on the subject.

⁷Manuel Payno y Flores, *Méjico and Her Financial Questions With England, Spain and France. Report by Order of the Supreme Constitutional Government of the Mexican Republic* (Mexico, 1862), 6.

⁸For information on the exact distribution of this loan consult: Bulnes, *op. cit.*, 38-39; Ortiz de Montellano, *Apuntes para la liquidación de la deuda contraída en Londres* (Mexico, 1886), 3-4.

⁹D. Audiffret, *Système Financier de la France*, cited in *Opúsculo acerca del crédito público, y de las últimas medidas decretados en estos días, . . .* (Mexico, 1846).

\$13,880,000.¹⁰ According to the official statement of Alamán, Mexican secretary of state, his government received from this second loan, in money and effects, the sum of £1,218,918, or approximately \$6,094,590. Accepting this as a true statement, the republic received approximately \$11,800,000 from both loans, while accepting the obligation of repaying \$32,000,000.

As is quite evident, the first financial ventures of Mexico in the trade marts of Europe proved disastrous. In February, 1826, the house of Goldschmidt declared itself bankrupt and suspended payments, with funds to the amount of £11,113, 9s.3d. due the Mexican government. The failure of the house of Barclay, Herring, Richardson and Company the following year brought another great financial loss.¹¹

The history of British loans to Mexico became one filled with ruinous losses, which were nothing less than the result of ill-conceived gambling speculations on the part of the British houses of finance. Controversies over the question of loans and false statements relating to the external debt of the new American republic caused many embarrassments and sponsored erroneous opinions.¹² The initial losses suffered by the Mexican government were great enough, but this foreign parasite was to continue to grow in size and intensity until the estimated claims of the British, without regard to other liabilities, amounted at times to almost one hundred millions of dollars. From the very first, the history of the debt contracted in London became the history of a debtor, inexperienced, anxious to pay, but always short of funds, and that of a prudent creditor who was anxious to enter into arrangements, but who at times became discontented and outraged when hopes of settlement seemed to be lost. The good faith of the Mexican government was shown through its continual attempts to meet payments on its foreign debts, despite the failure of its bankers in August, 1826. This

¹⁰Payno, *op. cit.*, 5, 7; Joaquín Demetrio Casasús, *Historia de la deuda contraida en Londres con un apéndice sobre el estado actual de la Hacienda Pública* (Mexico, 1835), 110-111.

¹¹"Report of the Department of Finance to the Congress of Mexico.—29th January, 1828," in *British and Foreign State Papers*, XVI, 940-941.

¹²Francisco de Arriagoiz and Guillermo Parish Robertson, *Piezas justificativas, del arreglo de la deuda esterna de Mexico, que se celebro en 6 de Julio de 1849 entre el Exmo. Sr. Ministro de Hacienda* (Mexico, 1849), 3.

evidence of good faith resulted in a spirit of confidence which made its way across the Atlantic and into the British Stock Exchanges.

With the failure of Barclay, Herring, Richardson and Company, the financial agency of Mexico passed into the hands of Baring Brothers and Company on September 20, 1826. Under the new agents the condition of the Republic went from bad to worse, and the payment of interest due the first of October was necessarily delayed. Revolutions against the federal government, which broke out in Vera Cruz in 1827-1828 and spread quickly to the state of Puebla, did not improve the financial condition of the realm. These revolts were due in part to a desire to effect the expulsion of the remaining Spaniards in the country—an expulsion which had its beginning with the decree of December 20, 1827, which drove certain classes from Mexico.¹³ Another factor adding fuel to the conflict was the existing bitterness between the Masons of the Scottish rite and those of the York rite, which represented the respective aristocratic and democratic feelings among the Mexican people.

Despite these reverses, the Mexican republic displayed evidence of good faith, and various plans were submitted in an attempt to raise a sufficient amount of money to make the necessary payments. The demands of the bondholders became more frequent, until ways and means were finally assigned for the payment of dividends over-due in London. By a decree of May 23, 1828, the eighth part of the proceeds of the maritime custom-houses and of the export duties on gold and silver, whether coined, worked up, or in pasta, was dedicated to the payment of dividends of interest and redemption of the capital of the foreign loans.¹⁴

Another decree, dated October 28, 1828, followed almost immediately. The government planned to endeavor to procure the assent of parties interested in the over-due dividends, and when this was accomplished, the coupons were to be capitalized, and new bonds, which were to bear five or six per cent interest, were to be issued to replace the old. Along with the dividends on the original debt, there was to be remitted every

¹³For information on this decree consult Manuel Dublán y José María Lozano, *Legislación Mexicana . . .* (Mexico), II, 47-48.

¹⁴*Dictamen de la comisión de crédito público de la cámara de diputados, sobre el arreglo de la deuda Inglesa*, appendix, No. V, 6-7; Payno, *op. cit.*, appendix, No. V., 6.

three months the amount of interest due on the new bonds and also an equal amount for the gradual repayment of the principal; the funds were to be taken from the exclusive redemption fund, and if this proved insufficient, then from any other fund. Finally, this was to in no way prevent the government from paying the whole debt referred to at any time that the national exchequer by ordinary or extraordinary means could do so.¹⁵

That the bondholder was not getting an eighth part of the net proceeds of the maritime custom-houses, as decreed by the law of May 23, 1828, is quite evident with a casual glance at the revenues from these houses for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1829; the amount was placed at 6,497,288 ps. 7rs. 6gs.¹⁶ Despite the strained financial relationships between Mexico and England, the capital was of inestimable importance to the newly formed republic. Alamán in his speech to congress, February 12, 1830, openly admitted that great wealth circulated throughout the republic.

. . . owing to the Loans contracted in London, and the various Companies established for the encouragement of the different branches of trade. By this powerful impulse, all the mines, the operation of which had been for a long time suspended, recommenced working, a new direction was given to commerce, internal trade revived, and, advancing onwards, the repairs and opening of roads were projected, These enterprises, at the same time that they gave life to the Republic in the Interior, secured its Foreign Relations, by fixing the interest of thousands of Foreigners toward us, not only by feelings of sympathy and speculative anticipations, but by positive engagements, which identified with the fate of the Republic that of the Capitalists of those parts of the World.¹⁷

With this affiliation of interests, it is little wonder that the minister of finance in his *Memoria* for 1830 said that one of

¹⁵ *Dictamen de la comisión de crédito público de la cámara de diputados, sobre el arreglo de la deuda Inglesa*, appendix, No. VI, 7; Ortiz de Montellano, *op. cit.*, 10. The date for this decree is given as October 27, 1828, in "Report of the Minister of Finance to the General Congress of Mexico.—1st April, 1830," in *British and Foreign State Papers*, XVII, 1033.

¹⁶ "Report of the Minister of Finance to the General Congress of Mexico.—1st April, 1830," in *ibid.*, XVII, 1025. Regarding the monetary values listed here it is expedient to say that one peso is equal to eight reals, and one real is equal to twelve grano.

¹⁷ "Report of the Secretary of State to the Congress of Mexico, relative to Foreign Affairs, 12th February, 1830," in *ibid.*, XVIII, 1416.

the major responsibilities of the federal exchequer was the problem of foreign loans, or that the minister of foreign affairs in his report to congress on February 12, 1830, brought out the fact that the failure to meet its obligations, particularly in regard to the loans of the twenties, had practically destroyed credit and confidence in Mexico.

In his report in April, 1830, the minister of finance stated that the arrears accumulated on account of the foreign loans since October, 1827, would amount to \$4,178,529 by June 30, 1830. With an earnest desire to retain the good will of her creditors, the Mexican government instructed her envoy in London to invite the bondholders to name agents in the ports of the republic to receive the eighth part of the future proceeds of the customs, which had been destined by the law of May 23, 1828, for the payment of interest.¹⁸

On receipt of this manifestation of good faith the Mexican bondholders called a meeting which was to consider the necessary steps to be taken relative to the payment of dividends. This meeting, called the "Meeting of Mexican Bondholders," was held at the City of London Tavern, Saturday, May 26, 1830. Alderman Thompson was chairman of this group, and, after manifestations of good faith and confidence in Mexico, certain resolutions were proposed and passed upon. Chief among these was the suggestion that a new committee be appointed to "represent the general interests of the bondholders."¹⁹ Such a committee was appointed with John Marshall as chairman. At the same time Aberdeen expressed his willingness to permit the British consular agents to receive such duties as might be paid over to them by the Mexican government for the use of the bondholders.

The suggestion of the Mexican minister of finance and the resolutions of the bondholders were brought to the attention of the British Foreign Office on June 3, 1830, by the chairman of the committee, and on June 8, 1830, that august office gave its consent to the use of His Majesty's minister in Mexico and of the British vice-consul at Vera Cruz and Tampico to receive the sums of money to be applied in the above fashion.

¹⁸ *Memoria de Hacienda* (Mexico), April, 1830, 13-14.

¹⁹ For a full account of these resolutions consult "The Mexican Loans," in *The Morning Herald*, May 27, 1830, p. 3, col. 3. An account of this meeting and resolutions can be found in "Mexico; or the Patriot-Bondholders," in *Cobbett's Weekly Political Register* (London), LXIX, No. 25, pp. 800-801 (footnote).

Aberdeen further instructed the British chargé d'affaires "to give a friendly support to such representations as the bond-holders may have occasion to make to the Mexican government."²⁰ At the same time the vice-consuls of the above mentioned ports were given the task of receiving in deposit from the Mexican authorities and transmitting to the British government such sums of money as might be set apart at their respective ports for the payment of dividends due to the holders of the bonds.

After certain diplomatic misunderstandings were successfully dealt with, Pakenham, British chargé d'affaires, in a communication of August 30, 1830, assured the chairman of the committee of bondholders that he would take every step consistent with his instructions which might appear to him likely to contribute to the advancement of such a worthy plan.²¹

Manning, the committee's representative in Mexico, working hand and hand with Pakenham, was successful in obtaining the submission of a proposal to the Mexican Congress, by the minister of finance, which took the form of a law on October 2, 1830. In brief, this law provided for the issuance of new bonds to satisfy all interests due, or to become due on the loans of 1824 and 1825 up to April 1, 1831, and in satisfaction of half the interest to become due on the same loans during the five year period following April 1, 1831, or until April 1, 1836. New bonds were issued to the holders of the Goldschmidt issue at five per cent, and at the rate of one thousand dollars for six hundred and twenty-five dollars; holders of the Barclay issue were to receive new six per cent bonds at the rate of one thousand dollars for seven hundred and fifty dollars of the interest funded.²² These new bonds were to be issued on April 1, 1836, and were to bear interest from that date. For the payment of the unfunded half of the interest due on the Goldschmidt and Barclay loans

²⁰Correspondence, No. 85, Backhouse to Marshall, F. O., June 8, 1830, in *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVIII, 971.

²¹Correspondence, No. 87, Pakenham to Marshall, Mexico, August 30, 1830, in *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVIII, 972-973.

²²For a full account of this transaction and the provisions of the decree of October 2, 1830, consult: Ortiz de Montellano, *op. cit.*, 10-12; C. Tomas Murphy, *Memoria, sobre la deuda exterior de la Republica Mexicana desde su creación hasta fines de 1847* (Paris, 1848), 6-8; *Memoria de Hacienda*, 1834, 21-22.

from April, 1831, to April, 1836, one-sixth part of the proceeds of the maritime customs duties of Vera Cruz and Tampico were to be delivered, after collection, to two persons, one to be named by the government, and the other by the committee of bondholders at London, and to be duly transferred to authorized parties.

The law of October 2, 1830, was accepted by the committee of bondholders, subject to a change instituted by a supplementary decree of May 20, 1831, which dealt specifically with the issuance of new bonds which was to take place in 1836.²³ These two decrees, dated October 2, 1830, and May 20, 1831 were highly satisfactory to the bondholders.

The dividends which became due on July 1, 1831, were paid in cash to the bondholders; sixteen thousand dollars being advanced by the house of Baring Brothers and Company, which was later repaid out of the remittances from the maritime custom-houses. The remittances to London, from the date of the first law to the end of December, 1831, amounted to 631,669 ps. 3rs. 4gs.²⁴ It soon became quite evident, however, that the appropriation was wholly inadequate to meet the existing obligations, and as a result Mexico fell into arrears.

In view of the apparent inability of the Mexican government to meet payments, two suggestions were made by the committee of bondholders regarding the new capitalization. These proposals were: first, the immediate emission of bonds for the dividends due until April 1, 1831, whose coupons had been recognized; and second, to be realized on January 1, 1832, when they presented to recover the sum due them for the current six month period, and to transfer the coupons of the half dividends that did not fall due until April 1, 1836, Gorostiza was to give a receipt for such coupons, with the hope that by that date new bonds would have been emitted.²⁵ Acting upon these suggestions, it was decided in September, 1831, that new bonds bearing interest from April 1, 1836, should be issued immediately to cover interest due and unpaid

²³For information on this decree consult: *Dictamen de la comisión de crédito público de la cámara de diputados, sobre el arreglo de la deuda Inglesa*, appendix, No. VIII, 9-10.

²⁴Report of Don Rafael Mangino, in *Memoria de Hacienda*, 1832, cited in Robert Crichton Wyllie, *Mexico. Report on Its Finances, . . .* (London, 1844), 30.

²⁵Alamán, *op. cit.*, 21.

up to April 1, 1831, and that new bonds providing for one half the amount accruing from the latter date to April 1, 1836, should be issued from time to time during this period.²⁶

The evidence for the entire period under discussion is in favor of the effort of Mexico to pay, and there is little justification for the statement that she was attempting to disregard obligations to her European creditors. On the other hand, Great Britain continually looked towards the commercial and financial advancement of her people. The Mexicans were unable to recognize in the apparent sympathetic and friendly manifestations of the British state the real motive for this interest. That foreign government was looking beyond, coldly and ruthlessly calculating the greatness and prosperity of Mexico, with its numerous and most apparent economic possibilities and advantages, which seemed to be awaiting the guiding hand of British ingenuity and capitalism—a most wanton and destructive type of early nineteenth century imperialism.

²⁶*Legislación Mexicana*, II, 329.

RELATION OF POPULATION DENSITY TO INDICES OF ECONOMIC PRODUCTION IN OKLAHOMA, 1930

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This paper constitutes an attempt to measure relative economic production per square mile in Oklahoma by counties for 1930 and to ascertain how the population density of Oklahoma was related to economic production in that year. If the total economic production per square mile can be measured, an "ideal" distribution of population may be computed, based on the assumption that profits derived from production should have been distributed equally among all inhabitants. Then by comparing these computed densities with actual densities of population, those areas which had excesses or shortages of population in relation to economic production may be ascertained. The relation of actual population density to computed population density might conceivably be made the basis for future action directed toward a redistribution of population per square mile or of economic production per capita.

The total economic production of an area during a certain period of time is the sum of the values of all commodities produced and all services rendered in the area during the time designated. Unfortunately, there are no available data, such as might be provided by a census of income, which accurately show the values of all commodities and services by counties. In the absence of accurate data, indirect measures must be substituted. Three criteria of total economic production have been selected by the writer for the purposes of this paper. They are (1) tangible property valuations, 1930, (2) total bank deposits, January 1, 1931, and (3) value of retail sales exclusive of food sales, 1929. It is admitted that these criteria are not thoroughly valid measures of total economic production, yet it is believed that each is a significant measure.

Tax assessment valuations and market values of tangible property are assumed to be closely related in Oklahoma. It is the function of the State Board of Equalization to maintain such a relationship uniformly throughout the state. Moreover, it may be accepted that market values are in general proportionate to the actual or potential productiveness of tangible property. It follows that tangible property valuations con-

stitute a significant measure of total economic production in so far as the property actually is used to facilitate the production of commodities or the performance of services.

Admitted invalidities of tangible property valuations as measures of total economic production arise from two facts. (1) That part of the data which represents currently non-productive property cannot be segregated from the whole. (2) Shifts in the tax burden tend to lag behind changing economic conditions, and it is likely that property used in 1930 for agricultural production had a higher assessed valuation per monetary unit of production than some classes of urban property. These defects would be inconsequential if the ratios of used property to potentially useful property and of agricultural property to non-agricultural property were the same in all counties, but so much cannot be assumed.

Total bank deposits are believed to be a good criterion for the measurement of total economic production in Oklahoma. They indicate the amount of credit money available for use in a community and are, in general, indicative of the volume of commercial transactions within the areas served by particular banks. Moreover, most commercial transactions have to do with commodities and services and most commodities and services figure in commercial transactions. It may be accepted, therefore, that total bank deposits are roughly proportionate to total economic production.

The outstanding defects which render total bank deposits imperfect as measures of total economic production are that (1) the total bank deposits of an area are unquestionably affected by the distribution and soundness of banks and (2) there is no way by which inter-bank deposits may be re-allocated so that they will be included only in the totals of the banks of origin.

Finally, it may be said that, in general, the value of retail sales within an area is indicative of economic production there, for most commodities are produced and most services are rendered for money which is expended in retail markets. However, the value of food sales has been deducted from the total value of retail sales because in predominantly rural communities many foods are directly consumed by producers and do not enter into retail transactions, whereas in urban communities a larger percentage of the foods consumed is purchased in retail markets. Consequently, to use food sales

as a criterion of economic production would be to give urban communities an undeserved higher rating than rural communities.

A major imperfection of the value of retail sales as a measure of total economic production is that larger commercial centers attract retail trade from surrounding counties. Much of the trade of such cities as Oklahoma City and Tulsa does not reflect the economic production of those cities themselves, nor of their counties, but of areas more remote that are accessible to them.

Each of the foregoing criteria is, for reasons given, a substantial measure of total economic production, yet each possesses defects which somewhat impair its validity. It is probable that an average of them constitutes a better measure than any single one. Since each criterion selected measures all phases of economic production, all are given equal weight in the average.

Criteria comparable to the three selected above, but not in every case identical to them, have been secured for every state and correlated by state units with the personal income estimates of Leven, Moulton, and Warburton for 1929.¹ There was found to be a positive .99 coefficient of correlation between these estimates of income and total economic production as measured by tangible property valuations, total bank deposits, and value of retail sales less food sales. The average deviation of the mean of the three selected criteria from the income estimates was found to be 12 per cent.²

In 1930 Oklahoma had an average tangible property tax valuation of \$26,675 per square mile. This figure, representative of the state as a whole, has been given the arbitrary index number of 100. Similarly, each county had an average tangible property valuation per square mile and has been given an index number appropriate to its average. The indices of the individual counties range both above and below the state's average of 100. County indices of retail sales and total bank deposits have been obtained in a like manner. In each case the arbitrary index number of 100 has been

¹Maurice Leven, H. G. Moulton, and Clark Warburton, "America's Capacity to Consume," The Brookings Institution, *Institute of Economics Publication No. 56*, Washington, 1934, p. 174.

²Allen Belden, "Income Distribution and the Relation of Population Density to Income in the United States, 1929," *Geographical Review*, vol. XXV, pp. 671-674.

designated to represent the average for the state. Thus each county has a set of three index numbers, and the arithmetic means of the sets constitute a series of numbers representing relative total economic production per square mile in the counties. The state's mean index number is 100. Columns II, III, IV, and V of the accompanying table list individual and mean indices of the selected criteria by counties and state for 1930.³

When the mean indices of economic production per square mile in 1930 are plotted by counties on a map of Oklahoma, four areas with indices above 100 are revealed. The largest of these is an irregularly shaped area comprising eleven counties and extending from the Kansas boundary in Kay County southward through the central part of the state into Grady and Pontotoc counties. Another such area extends from the Kansas boundary in Washington County southward into Creek, Okmulgee, and Muskogee counties. This group includes Tulsa County whose index was 1924, the highest of all. The two remaining areas of high production are accounted for separately by Carter and Ottawa counties. Especially low indices are revealed to have been prevalent in the semi-arid northwestern counties and in the Ozark and Ouachita hill counties of the eastern part of the state.

An "ideal" distribution of the profits of economic production is one in which all persons share alike, that is, one in which the density of population is everywhere proportionate to total economic production. In order to have such a distribution throughout Oklahoma, the total economic production of each county must be to the total economic production of the state as the population density of each county is to the population density of the state. Given the county indices of total economic production and knowing the average density of population in the state to have been 34 persons per square mile, the density of population that each county should have supported in 1930 may be computed. For example, Cleveland County had an economic production index of 112 and should have supported a population density of 1.12 times 34, or 39 persons per square mile. Column VI of the table lists computed population densities derived from the 1930 population of the state and the indices of column V. The abstract indices of

³*Ibid.* Oklahoma had an index of income of 58 relative to the United States average in 1929.

column V simply have been converted into units of population per square mile that could have been supported at the average economic standard of living of the state in 1930. Computed population densities had a distribution identical to that of production indices.⁴

A county in Oklahoma may be said to have a population excess if it is inhabited by more persons than its total economic production can support at the average economic standard of living of the state. Likewise, if a county has fewer inhabitants than its economic production can support at the average economic standard of living it may be said to have a population shortage. In this paper the average standard living of the state has been taken as the basis for ascertaining which counties had excesses and shortages of population in 1930. For example, McCurtain County with an economic production index of 20, could have supported at the average standard of living of the state a population density of .20 times 34, or 7 persons per square mile, as is indicated in column VI. McCurtain County, however, actually had a population density of 18, or an excess of 11 persons per square mile. Washington County, on the other hand, had a computed population density of 109 and an actual density of 65 persons per square mile. It may therefore be considered to have had a population shortage of 44 persons per square mile. Column VIII of the table lists population excesses and shortages by counties.⁵

Tulsa County had the greatest population shortage in 1930, with 343 persons per square mile, and Oklahoma County ranked second in this respect with 229. These shortages were indicative of the relative prosperity of urban places. Washington County, most of the winter wheat belt, and the panhandle also had population shortages. Elsewhere population excesses prevailed. Seminole County had the greatest excess, and much of the eastern part of the state had relatively high excesses of population.⁶

⁴*Ibid.* Oklahoma had a computed population density of 24 in relation to the United States average in 1929.

⁵*Ibid.* Oklahoma had a population excess of 10.5 persons per square mile in relation to the United States average in 1929.

⁶*Ibid.* In 1930 only Washington, Tulsa, Oklahoma, and Kingfisher counties had population shortages in relation to the national average standard of living in 1929. In 1929 Seminole County had a population shortage, but in 1930 it had a population excess, probably due to the decline in oil production there.

It is not to be supposed that shifts in population from areas of excess to areas of shortage would necessarily improve the standard of living of any person or group of persons. Such shifts might equalize average standards of living in the areas concerned; on the other hand, they might lower the standard in both areas. It may well be that the present inhabitants of a county of population shortage so control productive property that newcomers could not obtain an average share of the benefits of economic production. Furthermore, labor of certain types may be paid more in counties of excess population than it would be paid if it moved to counties of population shortage. Also it must not be forgotten that this paper deals with 1930 conditions and that conditions have probably changed considerably since then. In short, any action intended to improve the economic standard of living within a county or group of counties should take into account the particular circumstances existing there at the time of the proposed action. Conditions can be equalized, but not necessarily improved, in three ways: (1) by shifting population from areas of excess to areas of shortage, (2) by increasing production in areas of population excess, and (3) by decreasing production in areas of population shortage. Whether any of these methods is desirable or feasible cannot be known until conditions within the areas involved in the proposed alteration have been studied and analyzed in detail.

RELATION OF POPULATION DENSITY TO INDICES OF ECONOMIC PRODUCTION IN OKLAHOMA, 1930

I County	Per Square Mile Indices				Population per Square Mile		
	II Property Valuation	III Bank Deposits	IV Retail Sales	V Mean	VI Computed	VII Actual	VIII Excess Shortage
Adair	29	11	35	25	9	25	17
Alfalfa	110	40	53	68	23	18	-6
Atoka	33	7	12	17	6	15	9
Beaver	32	11	11	18	6	6	0
Beckham	71	70	93	78	27	32	5
Blaine	65	43	60	56	19	22	3
Bryan	74	37	64	58	20	35	15
Caddo	74	61	90	75	26	39	13
Canadian	109	75	91	92	32	32	0
Carter	159	123	136	139	48	50	2
Cherokee	33	18	22	24	8	23	14
Choctaw	48	16	42	35	12	31	19
Cimarron	19	4	12	12	4	3	-1
Cleveland	112	104	121	112	39	45	6
Coal	49	8	22	26	9	22	13
Comanche	63	53	99	72	25	31	6
Cotton	61	24	58	48	16	24	8
Craig	77	41	44	54	19	24	5
Creek	171	76	179	142	49	67	18
Custer	79	50	83	71	25	28	3
Delaware	20	4	11	12	4	19	15
Dewey	36	25	34	32	11	13	2
Ellis	37	12	21	23	8	9	1
Garfield	187	117	193	166	57	43	-14
Garvin	87	74	80	80	28	38	10
Grady	110	92	109	104	36	43	7
Grant	106	39	39	61	21	14	-7
Greer	62	54	78	65	22	31	9
Harmon	58	24	64	49	17	25	8
Harper	27	10	21	19	7	8	1
Haskell	38	6	28	24	8	26	18
Hughes	75	67	108	83	29	38	10

(Table Continued)

^aComputed from data contained in *Biennial Report of the State Auditor*, State of Oklahoma, for the period ending June 30, 1930.^bComputed from data contained in *Markets and Quotas*, Curtis Publishing Company, Philadelphia, 1932.^cComputed from data contained in "General Consumer Market Statistics," *Domestic Commerce Series*, No. 56, United States Department of Commerce, Washington, 1932.^d*Fifteenth Census of the United States*, vol. I, "Population," Bureau of the Census, Washington, 1931.^eMinus signs signify population shortages. In some cases the figures in column VIII do not equal the difference between the figures in columns VI and VII because fractions were used in computing all population density figures but only whole numbers are shown in the table.

RELATION OF POPULATION DENSITY TO INDICES OF
ECONOMIC PRODUCTION IN OKLAHOMA, 1930

I County	Per Square Mile Indices				Population per Square Mile		
	II Property Valuation	III Bank Deposits	IV Retail Sales	V Mean	VI Computed	VII Actual	VIII Excess Shortage
Jackson	83	50	118	84	29	37	8
Jefferson	62	43	42	49	17	23	6
Johnston	46	11	26	28	10	20	10
Kay	238	176	189	201	69	54	16
Kingfisher	83	38	48	56	19	18	-1
Kiowa	71	51	77	66	23	26	5
Latimer	30	6	19	18	6	15	9
Le Flore	48	19	34	34	12	27	15
Lincoln	112	81	78	90	31	35	4
Logan	114	120	112	115	40	38	-2
Love	46	23	18	29	10	19	9
McClain	83	52	72	69	24	38	15
McCurtain	22	9	29	20	7	18	11
McIntosh	50	35	37	41	14	35	21
Major	52	17	20	30	10	13	3
Marshall	68	31	35	45	16	26	11
Mayes	53	20	44	39	13	26	13
Murray	74	52	61	62	21	29	8
Muskogee	234	254	231	237	82	82	0
Noble	96	48	51	65	22	21	-2
Nowata	71	30	37	46	16	23	7
Okfuskee	99	92	75	89	31	47	16
Oklahoma	968	2,132	1,579	1,560	538	309	-229
Oklmulgee	219	171	221	204	70	81	11
Osage	90	51	52	64	22	21	-1
Ottawa	154	185	154	164	57	81	24
Pawnee	127	81	66	91	31	34	3
Payne	250	143	141	178	61	54	-7
Pittsburg	39	51	78	56	19	37	18
Pontotoc	98	81	123	101	35	45	10
Pottawatomie	171	197	324	231	80	84	4
Pushmataha	19	9	12	13	4	10	6
Roger Mills	29	11	27	22	8	13	5
Rogers	84	48	44	59	20	27	6
Seminole	306	172	402	293	101	126	25
Sequoyah	36	7	22	22	8	28	20
Stephens	82	88	91	87	30	37	7
Texas	39	21	28	29	10	7	-3
Tillman	49	41	87	59	20	28	8
Tulsa	1,268	2,943	1,562	1,924	664	321	-343
Wagoner	100	32	35	56	19	30	20
Washington	312	394	244	317	109	65	-44
Washita	71	39	63	58	20	29	9
Woods	57	35	50	47	16	13	-3
Woodward	52	25	35	37	12	12	0
STATE	100	100	100	100	34	34	0

TRENDS IN FAMILY LIFE AND ORGANIZATION IN LOUISIANA

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This preliminary study of the family in Louisiana has been limited almost altogether to governmental reports, chiefly the census reports of the United States. Volume Six of the 1930 census, entitled "Families," gives a wealth of material on various phases of family life and organization. Since much of this material was not gathered in previous censuses, the comparisons in this study are chiefly with the same aspects of the family in the United States as a whole, and in some cases, with the neighboring states of the Southwest, namely, Texas, Oklahoma, and Arkansas. Further study needs to be made of more original sources, such as the data on the family that offices of the state public welfare departments are obtaining. Studies of certain communities need to be made, such as those of French-Negro mixtures. The changes of size of families, age of marriage, etc., can be made from case studies and from reports on vital statistics.

In 1930 there were 485,000 families in Louisiana, an increase of 70.2 per cent over the 281,000 of 1900. The increase in the population of Louisiana during the three decades was only 59.3 per cent. This difference, of course, is due to the decreasing birthrates and decreasing size of families. The increases in the number of families and in population were slower than for the United States as a whole, and the difference between the rates of increase of families and of population was much greater for the United States as a whole than for Louisiana. Texas and Oklahoma had much larger increases in the number both of families and of population. These larger increases, however, apparently are results of the migration into those states during the first two decades of this century. The increase in Arkansas was about the same as that for Louisiana.

In 1930, 39.3 per cent of the families and 37.1 per cent of the population of Louisiana were Negro. The corresponding proportions in 1900 had been 49.8 per cent and 46.5 per cent. The relative decreases in the number of Negro families and of population in Louisiana was about the same as for the United States as a whole and for Texas. Both Oklahoma and

Arkansas had relatively smaller decreases. The fact that Negro families show a larger percentage of the total families than does the Negro population is explained by the smaller average size of Negro families in all areas. (See Tables I and II).

TABLE I

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OF FAMILIES 1900-1930
AND PER CENT OF FAMILIES WHITE AND NEGRO
1900 AND 1930

Area	All classes		Per cent of increase 1900-1930	Per cent of total families			
	1930	1900		White	1930	1900	Negro
United States	29,904,663	15,963,965	87.3	89.3	88.1	9.4	11.5
Louisiana	485,368	281,449	70.2	60.4	50.0	39.3	49.8
Arkansas	438,639	262,421	70.0	71.9	70.7	28.0	29.3
Texas	1,380,096	582,055	137.1	74.9	79.4	15.3	20.5
Oklahoma	564,164	161,946	248.3	89.7	85.8	7.1	7.5

TABLE II

PER CENT OF INCREASE OF POPULATION FROM 1900 TO 1930

Area	Total	White	Negro
United States	61.6	62.3	32.4
Louisiana	59.3	80.6	19.1
Arkansas	41.3	38.2	33.4
Texas	91.0	76.5	37.7
Oklahoma	203.1	216.6	209.2

By far the larger part of the increase in the number of white families during the last 30 years in Louisiana, in the neighboring states, and in the United States as a whole took place in non-farm homes, that is, in homes that were not actually on farms. In Louisiana this increase was 138.6 per cent, about three and one-half times as fast as the increase on farms. In the entire United States the increase was 130.7 per cent and about ten times as fast as the increase of the number of white families on farms. Negro families in Louisiana increased during the same time only 36.1 per cent, but the increase of Negro families on farms was about half as large again as the increase in the non-farm Negro families. This contrasts sharply with the increase of Negro families in the United States. The increase for all Negro families was 52.9 per cent, a little less than a third of which was among Negro farm families. (See Table III).

TABLE III
PER CENT OF INCREASE OF FAMILIES, 1930 OVER 1900

Population	Total	Non-farm	Farm
United States			
All classes	87.3	125.7	17.5
White	89.8	130.7	13.2
Negro	52.9	69.4	29.3
Louisiana			
All classes	70.2	84.5	53.7
White	94.4	138.6	39.6
Negro	36.1	30.4	44.2

A smaller portion of the population of Louisiana in 1930 that was 15 years of age or older was unmarried than was true of the United States as a whole. This condition was true of both men and women, whites and Negroes, and living in both urban and rural homes, except that Negro women in cities were unmarried in a larger proportion than Negro men in cities, and more white women living in rural areas were unmarried than in the United States as a whole. In all these groups and classifications, except for Negro men in cities of the United States, a smaller proportion was unmarried in 1930 than in 1920. The decrease in the proportion reported unmarried at the close of the decade was consistently greater in Louisiana than in the United States. The changes are not great but are significant. It is probable, however, that a part of the change is due to the decreased proportion of the population that is included in the age group of 15 to 20 in 1930 as compared with 1920. That age group, of course, adds materially to the total numbers that are unmarried. Regularly smaller proportions of women than of men, of Negroes than of whites, of rural people than of urban people are unmarried. Marriage at younger ages probably accounts for some of these differences, especially the less proportion unmarried in Louisiana, since until 1934 the minimum ages for legal marriage were 12 for girls and 14 for boys.

The percentages of both males and females reported as widowed were about the same for the two dates, 1930 and 1920. They range close to 5 per cent for white men and about 10 per cent or 11 per cent for white women. From 5 per cent to 6 per cent of Negro men and 12 per cent to 20 per cent of Negro women were widowed. The percentages of white men in Louisiana who were widowed were consistently

lower in all types of groups than was true for the United States, but the percentages of widowed women were generally higher. Apparently, widowed men remarry more readily in Louisiana or die sooner than for the United States as a whole, and widowed women less readily. The percentages of widowed were regularly less for rural than for urban groups.

There was a sharp increase in the percentages reported for the United States as divorced. This was true of all groups, men and women, rural and urban, whites and Negroes. The percentages were lower among whites than Negroes, and among rural groups than among urban groups. Women also had higher percentages than men, and Negroes than whites. Louisiana consistently had lower rates for corresponding groups of whites and Negroes. The percentages were never large and, of course, have little significance as to the amount of divorce, for in the census reports apparently all divorced persons who had remarried were included among the married. (See Table IV).

TABLE IV
MARITAL CONDITION OF ALL CLASSES OF THE POPULATION
OF UNITED STATES AND LOUISIANA 15 YEARS OF AGE AND
OLDER, BY SEX AND AREA

Area	Single		Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
United States								
All								
1930	34.1	26.4	60.0	61.1	4.6	11.1	1.13	1.34
1920	35.1	27.3	59.1	60.6	4.8	11.1	.64	.77
Urban								
1930	33.7	27.8	60.5	58.5	4.3	11.8	1.25	1.64
1920	35.5	29.0	58.9	57.6	4.6	12.2	.73	.94
Rural								
1930	34.5	24.2	59.3	65.0	5.0	9.8	.93	.86
1920	34.7	25.2	59.5	64.3	5.0	9.8	.54	.56
Louisiana								
All-(1930)	33.3	25.3	61.0	60.4	4.7	12.7	.88	1.44
1920	35.0	27.2	59.4	59.3	4.7	12.5	.44	.77
Urban								
1930	33.8	27.4	60.4	55.4	4.6	15.2	1.09	1.52
1920	37.7	29.3	56.4	53.3	4.7	16.0	.60	1.00
Rural								
1930	32.9	23.6	61.5	64.6	4.8	10.5	.73	1.11
1920	33.3	25.7	61.3	63.4	4.7	10.1	.34	.61

The average size of families in Louisiana in 1930 was 4.09 persons per family, for native whites was 4.26, for foreign born whites 4.44, and for Negroes 3.81. The average size of families in Louisiana is larger in all classifications than for the United States and the three southwestern states, except that the average size for Negro families in Louisiana was the same as for the United States and Oklahoma. (See Table V).

TABLE V
AVERAGE SIZE OF FAMILIES BY COLOR AND NATIVITY
OF HEAD, 1930

Area	All Classes	Native white	Foreign born white	Negro
United States	3.81	3.73	4.08	3.81
Louisiana	4.09	4.26	4.44	3.81
Arkansas	4.05	4.20	3.80	3.67
Texas	3.98	3.91	3.95	3.73
Oklahoma	4.02	4.02	3.78	3.81

The median size of families in Louisiana is also higher in all classifications of tenure and race than it is of the corresponding classifications for the United States and for the neighboring states of the Southwest, except that the median size for all classes without reference to tenure or race is the same for Louisiana and Arkansas. The median size for New Orleans is strikingly lower than for the state as a whole. (See Table VI).

TABLE VI
MEDIAN SIZE OF FAMILIES BY TENURE, COLOR AND
NATIVITY OF HEAD

Area	Total	All classes		Native white	Foreign born white	Negro
		Owner	Tenant			
United States	3.40	3.89	3.35	3.34	3.74	3.15
Louisiana	3.61	3.90	3.88	3.87	4.01	3.16
Arkansas	3.61	3.67	3.62	3.84	3.29	3.04
Texas	3.53	3.54	3.58	3.53	3.50	3.09
Oklahoma	3.60	3.51	3.72	3.63	3.33	3.13
New Orleans	3.35	3.80	3.21	3.54	3.83	2.81

In the 1930 census, families are enumerated according to the number of persons included within the family group. In Louisiana, 7.4 per cent of families comprise only one person, 21.5 per cent two persons, 19.4 per cent three persons, 16.3 per cent four persons, 12 per cent five persons, 8.5 per cent six persons, and 5.8 per cent seven persons. Families of over seven persons are neglected in this study. They are few in number, though relatively more in Louisiana than in the United States as a whole.

The percentages in Louisiana of all families composed of one to four persons are lower than they are in the United States. Families of five persons are in the same proportion but families of six and seven persons are relatively more numerous. The other states used in this comparison differ more at both extremes of the distribution than does Louisiana.

Larger percentages of Negro families than of whites in Louisiana are composed of one and of two persons, but the percentages are smaller in all other size groups. The distribution of Negro families in size is about the same for Louisiana as for the United States, but the percentages of white families of Louisiana that are composed of one, two, and three persons are strikingly less than for the United States. Consequently, the percentages of white families for Louisiana that are composed of five, six, and seven persons are larger than for the United States.

In both Louisiana and the United States rural non-farm families appear in larger percentages with only one person than do urban families, and urban families in much larger percentages than farm families of only one person. For families composed of two, three, and four persons both Louisiana and the United States show slightly larger percentages among urban than rural non-farm families and considerably larger percentages than among farm families. The larger percentages of families of five, six, and seven persons therefore appear among farm families and considerably lower among urban families. Louisiana families do not differ as much in these percentages as do the families of the United States. (See Table VII).

TABLE VII

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF PERSONS PER FAMILY, 1930

Area and racial group	Per Cent of Families of Size Specified						
	One person	Two persons	Three persons	Four persons	Five persons	Six persons	Seven persons
All families							
United States	7.9	23.4	20.8	17.5	12.0	7.6	4.7
Louisiana	7.4	21.5	19.4	16.3	12.0	8.5	5.8
White							
United States	7.3	24.1	22.0	18.1	11.8	7.2	4.3
Louisiana	4.4	18.4	20.3	18.4	13.8	9.5	6.3
Negro							
United States	12.1	26.4	17.9	12.9	9.5	6.9	5.0
Louisiana	11.5	26.2	18.5	13.2	9.4	6.9	5.0
Urban families							
United States	8.0	25.1	22.1	18.1	11.6	6.8	3.8
Louisiana	8.8	24.1	21.1	17.2	11.5	7.2	4.4
Rural non-farm families							
United States	10.4	23.8	20.2	16.6	11.4	7.3	4.5
Louisiana	9.1	22.0	19.6	16.1	12.0	8.1	5.5
Rural farm families							
United States	5.2	18.3	18.0	16.6	13.3	10.0	7.1
Louisiana	4.7	18.1	17.3	15.3	12.6	10.1	7.6

In the distribution of families by race, tenure, and area into those having no children, one child, two, three, four, five, six to eight, and nine or more children under twenty-one years of age, Louisiana has in all classes a smaller percentage than the United States of families with no children, and a smaller percentage of Negro families with only one child. Negro families are distributed throughout the various sizes and classes about the same for Louisiana as for the United States. A larger percentage of white families in Louisiana, however, have two children, and in every size above two. The excess of the percentages for Louisiana increases as the number of children increases.

Only 4.7 per cent of the families of Louisiana do not have homemakers. This compares favorably with the 5 per cent of the families of the United States that do not have homemakers. Moreover, only 3 per cent of the native white families of Louisiana do not have homemakers and only 6.5

per cent of Negro families. The corresponding rates for the United States are 4.44 per cent and 7.2 per cent.

Of the families with homemakers a larger proportion of the homemakers in Louisiana than in the United States as a whole was gainfully employed in 1930. However, the percentages of both the white families and the Negro families with homemakers gainfully employed were lower for Louisiana than for the United States. The rates are 8.9 per cent and 35.7 per cent, whites and Negroes, respectively, for Louisiana, and 11.7 per cent and 37.5 per cent for the United States. As the percentage of Negro homemakers that are gainfully employed is much larger, the relatively larger proportion of Negroes in Louisiana is the reason for the larger rate, 19.2 per cent of gainfully employed homemakers in Louisiana as compared with 11.7 per cent for the United States.

Only 65 per cent of the homemakers gainfully employed in Louisiana were engaged in occupations away from the home, though 80.4 per cent of such homemakers of the United States were in vocations out of the home. Undoubtedly, since Louisiana is largely an agricultural state and considerably over one-half of the Louisiana homemakers gainfully employed at home were engaged in agriculture, agricultural occupations of homemakers is the cause of the higher percentage of Louisiana homemakers employed at home. For those working out of homes in Louisiana, professions and office duties were, in 1930, the more important vocations for white homemakers, and servants and other personal services accounted for nearly one-half of the occupation of Negro homemakers.

Four per cent of the total number of native white families of Louisiana and 2.7 per cent of the Negro families have no gainful workers. These rates are smaller than those for the United States. The typical family group is the one supported by one gainful worker. In Louisiana 65.7 per cent of the native white families and 56.5 per cent of Negro families are of this type. This is a larger proportion than for the United States, though it is smaller than for the neighboring states. Families with two gainful workers comprise 19.2 per cent of the native white families and 26.1 per cent of the Negro families of Louisiana. These rates are slightly lower

for the United States. For families with three and with four or more workers, the relative proportions are higher for native whites and lower for Negro families for Louisiana than for the United States. (See Table VIII).

TABLE VIII

NUMBER OF FAMILIES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF
GAINFUL WORKERS. BY COLOR, NATIVITY OF HEAD

Area, nativity and color	Total number of families	Per cent of families with specified number of gainful workers				
		0	1	2	3	4 or more
All families						
United States						
Native white	20,968,803	6.3	65.1	20.0	6.0	2.5
Negro	2,803,756	3.1	54.7	27.1	8.9	6.3
Louisiana						
Native white	276,508	4.0	65.7	19.2	7.2	3.8
Negro	190,376	2.7	56.5	26.1	8.7	6.0
Arkansas						
Native white	310,328	4.4	68.0	18.4	6.1	3.0
Negro	123,009	2.3	65.8	20.8	6.5	4.6
Texas						
Native white	987,462	4.5	67.9	19.4	5.8	2.4
Negro	210,795	2.3	57.1	20.8	8.2	5.1
Oklahoma						
Native white	492,672	4.7	70.1	18.6	4.9	1.7
Negro	40,238	3.9	62.6	24.5	6.1	2.9

In the 1930 census report women were given as heads of families in 13.9 per cent of all families in Louisiana as compared with the 12.7 per cent of all families in the United States. Of the native white families, however, only 10.8 per cent were reported to have women as heads. This is to be compared with the 15.9 per cent of the corresponding group in the entire United States. Among Negroes, also, there was a smaller proportion of families headed by women in Louisiana than in the United States. That these two rates are lower, though the rates together are higher than for the United States, is explained by the facts that Louisiana has a relatively larger proportion of Negroes than the United States, and the rates are considerably higher among Negroes. The percentages of families with women as heads were much greater among urban families than among rural non-farm families.

Slightly over one-third of the families in Louisiana own their homes, while nearly one-half of the families in the United States own their homes. Louisiana families have a lower rate of ownership than the neighboring states, but they in turn have a lower rate than the average for the United

States. Ownership of homes increased in Louisiana between 1900 and 1930 faster than the slow increase for the United States. The neighboring states show a decrease.

Ownership of homes increased from 1900 to 1930 quite rapidly by non-farm families, changing in Louisiana from 21.6 per cent to 36 per cent, and in the United States, from 34.7 per cent to 45.2 per cent. Arkansas and Texas also had increases, but Oklahoma suffered a decrease. Louisiana, the United States, and the neighboring states all had sharp decreases in the ownership of homes by farm families.

In Louisiana both Negro and white families owned their homes in larger proportions in non-farm areas and in decreased proportions of farm areas. The decrease in ownership of farm homes was so great that a smaller proportion of white families in Louisiana owned their homes in 1930 than they did in 1900. (See Table IX).

TABLE IX
TENURE OF HOMES BY AREA AND RACE*

Area and race	Per cent increase in rented homes 1930 over 1900	Per cent owned		Per cent rented	
		1930	1900	1930	1900
United States					
All families	87.3	52.5	63.9	44.5	35.3
Non-farm families	125.7	45.2	34.7	53.2	60.5
Farm families	17.5	52.5	63.9	44.5	35.3
Louisiana					
All families	70.2	34.1	29.7	63.3	64.5
Non-farm families	84.5	36.0	21.6	61.8	69.1
White	138.6	41.1	29.9	56.8	70.1
Negro	29.3	26.4	13.5	70.8	86.5
Farm families	53.7	31.0	41.5	66.0	57.7
White	39.6	46.9	66.9	50.3	33.1
Negro	44.2	13.1	16.6	83.3	83.4
Whites	94.4	42.9	44.8	59.8	55.2
Negroes	36.1	20.6	14.6	76.2	83.4
Arkansas					
All families	70.0	38.5	45.7	57.4	49.7
Non-farm families	120.1	42.9	29.4	54.2	58.7
Farm families	41.0	35.1	53.6	59.9	45.3
Texas					
All families	137.1	40.4	45.0	56.5	51.4
Non-farm families	262.7	42.9	37.4	54.1	54.6
Farm families	48.2	38.1	50.4	60.6	49.2
Oklahoma					
All families	248.3	39.9	52.1	56.8	43.8
Non-farm families	576.4	43.0	46.0	54.2	43.7
Farm families	95.8	35.0	54.8	61.1	43.8

*Percentages do not total 100 because of exclusion of those with tenure unknown.

Contrary to what would be expected, ownership of homes seems to increase with the number of persons included within the family, except in rural non-farm and farm area of the United States as a whole, and a slight decrease among the farm families of Louisiana with seven persons in the family. Either owners often have larger families than tenants, or larger families serve as an incentive to home ownership, or what is more probably true, ownership of homes comes with increasing age after marriage and hence an increasing size of family. Over twice as large a percentage of families with no gainful workers own their homes as compared with those who rent them. Families who have only one gainful worker live in rented homes in larger proportions than in owned homes.

If there are two, three, and four or more workers in the family, then home ownership relative to their numbers surpasses renting except among Negroes in Louisiana. Among them the reverse is true. These trends seem to be natural, with the exception of the large ownership of homes by families with no gainful worker. Perhaps retired workers is the explanation of this. (See Table X).

TABLE X

FAMILIES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF GAINFUL WORKERS BY RACE AND TENURE

Area, color and tenure	Per cent of families by classes having persons numbering				
	0	1	2	3	4 or more
United States					
Native whites					
Owners	8.7	60.7	21.0	6.8	2.8
Tenants	3.8	69.4	19.2	5.3	2.2
Negroes					
Owners	4.9	49.8	28.1	10.4	6.7
Tenants	4.4	56.0	26.8	8.6	6.2
Louisiana					
Native whites					
Owners	5.7	60.9	21.3	8.1	4.0
Tenants	2.6	69.2	17.8	6.7	3.7
Negroes					
Owners	5.1	50.1	21.7	10.4	7.2
Tenants	1.9	58.0	25.9	8.4	5.8

Louisiana families in much larger proportions than the families of the United States live in owned homes valued at \$2000, or less. Over 40 per cent of the white owners of non-farm houses in Louisiana have been valued at less than \$3000, as compared with a little less than 30 per cent in the cor-

responding group for the United States. Nearly three-quarters of the Negroes in Louisiana who own homes have homes valued at less than \$2000, while slightly over one-half of the Negro owners of the United States live in houses valued under that amount. When these houses are divided among urban and rural non-farm, it is found that the urban homes of Louisiana more nearly correspond to the value of the urban owned houses of the United States, but the rural non-farm differ more, and more for Negroes than for whites. In Louisiana over one-third of rural non-farm white families and over three-fourths of the rural non-farm Negroes own houses valued at less than \$1000. A comparison of the rented houses by the amount of monthly rent with owned houses shows about the same differences between Louisiana and the United States as a whole. Louisiana compares favorably with Arkansas in housing values and is about the same as that of Oklahoma. Texas seems to be slightly superior, especially in rural non-farm homes.

In conclusion, it might be pointed out that these changes in family composition for Louisiana no less than for other states may have great significance for other phases of life. Many fields of economic life, in fact, most of them depend upon family units rather than upon individuals, and consequently the increase or decrease in the number of family units effects them more directly than population changes. The distribution of wealth and earning capacity should be considered from the point of view of families rather than persons in economic organization built upon the family as an accounting unit. Needless to say, the family composition also influences the nature and the economic costs of education, religious activities, and recreations. Louisiana seems to be slower in making some of these changes but in general they are being made in Louisiana as well as in the other states of the Southwest.

NOTES FROM THE SOUTHWEST

ARKANSAS

University of Arkansas—Dr. C. O. Brannen and staff members of the Department of Rural Economics and Sociology attended the regional conference of Agricultural Workers at Texarkana on December 11 and 12, 1936. Dr. Brannen acted as chairman of the program committee.

Dr. C. O. Brannen attended the meeting of the Association of Land Grant Colleges at Houston and the regional meeting of the Special Committee on Farm Tenancy at Dallas.

Dr. H. W. Blalock has been appointed a member of the Arkansas Utilities Commission. Dr. Blalock recently completed a study of farm tenancy, acting as chairman of a sub-committee of the Arkansas Policy Committee.

Professor Orville J. Hall has recently returned from the University of Minnesota where he pursued further graduate study in agricultural economics, having been granted a leave of absence for this purpose.

Dr. W. T. Wilson and Dr. W. H. Metzler are completing a study entitled "Characteristics of Arkansas Rural Rehabilitation Clients."

Dr. K. H. Hunter is cooperating with a committee of the Arkansas State Bankers Association on a study of banking resources and banking trends in the state.

Professor T. W. Douglas attended the meetings of the American Economics Association in Chicago.

Mr. Howard Eoff, Field Assistant in the Department, left January 1 to join the Missouri and North Arkansas Railway in the capacity of Agricultural Agent.

Mr. Harry Wise, Instructor in Rural Economics and Sociology, leaves January 15 to join the Resettlement Administration.

KANSAS

University of Kansas—Assistant Professor Noel P. Gist of the Department of Sociology has recently completed a revision of G. S. Dow's *Society and Its Problems* for the social science series of the Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

The Kansas State Planning Board has announced the publication of *People of Kansas; A Demographic and Sociological Study*, by Carroll D. Clark and Roy L. Roberts.

MISSOURI

University of Missouri—Professor John Quincy Adams of the Department of Geography was recently elected a fellow of the Royal Geographic Society, London, in recognition of his research work in Canada since 1931, particularly of his participation in the Canadian Arctic Expedition of 1936.

Professor R. S. Bauder of the Department of Economics has been placed in charge of a placement bureau, established for the purpose of securing positions for students graduating from the School of Business and Public Administration.

Professor William L. Bradshaw and Mr. Milton Garrison are joint authors of "Township Organization in Missouri," published in the *University of Missouri Studies*, October 1, 1936.

Professor Elmer Ellis of the Department of History was elected President of the National Council for Social Studies for 1937 at the annual meeting in Detroit.

Dr. Herman M. Haag was recently appointed Assistant Professor of Agricultural Economics.

Professor Harry Pelle Hartkemeier of the Department of Business Statistics recently spent some time as Senior Economist of the Bureau of Home Economics, Washington, D. C.

Mr. Abram Meyers, formerly associated with the Department of Agricultural Economics, was recently transferred to Washington as an Assistant Agricultural Economist in the Resettlement Administration.

Professor E. L. Morgan of the Department of Rural Sociology has been a member of a special committee appointed by Governor Guy B. Park to prepare a report on Social Security, including recommendations for legislation.

Professor C. F. Mullett has an article on "The English Plague Scare of 1720-23" in *Osiris* II, November, 1936.

Dr. Estal E. Sparlin, Assistant Instructor in Political Science, has been appointed Instructor for the 1937 summer session.

President Frederick A. Middlebush recently appointed an Advisory Committee on Utilization of Land as Affecting Local Government and Public Finance, in connection with a study of the Resettlement Administration of Reynolds and adjoining Ozark counties in one of the new federal forest regions. The committee is composed of Professors William L. Bradshaw, Robert L. Howard, Conrad H. Hammar, Henry H. Krusekopf, of the Departments of Political Science, Law, Agricultural Economics, and Soils, respectively.

Professor John B. Wolf of the Department of History has an article, "Auslanddeutschtum: a Problem in Collective Security," in the September 1936 issue of *World Affairs*.

President Elmer Ellis of Alpha Pi Zeta, honorary social science fraternity, recently appointed a committee to prepare a pamphlet or guide book for graduate students who are writing theses in the social studies. The committee is composed of Professors Karl R. Bopp, Economics; Charles F. Mullett, History; John G. Heinberg, Political Science; Conrad H. Hammar, Agricultural Economics; Arthur S. Emig, Sociology; and Arthur Melton, Psychology.

Professor L. Guy Brown of the Department of Sociology is active in the formation of a Mid-West Sociological Society, which will meet in Des Moines, Iowa, sometime in April.

Professor Arthur S. Emig of the Department of Sociology is chairman of the sociology section of the Missouri Academy of Science, which will hold its meeting in St. Louis in April.

Professors J. E. Wrench of the Department of History and J. Brewton Berry of the Department of Sociology have been directing the excavation of Indian mounds and villages along the Missouri River, as part of their research in Missouri prehistory. Professor Wrench is President and Professor Berry is secretary of the State Archaeology Society.

Washington University—The George Warren Brown Memorial Building, a modern new \$250,000 structure, the generous gift of the late Mrs. George Warren Brown, was occupied by Social Work, Sociology, Political Science, and History over the holidays. It was dedicated on January 12, and its occupancy was celebrated by a week of intellectual festivities January 12-17. A group of agencies, national and local, held programs during this week, the most important of which were by the American Association of Schools of Social Work, the St. Louis

chapter of the American Association of Social Workers, the Community Council of St. Louis, the Department of Public Welfare of St. Louis, and the Missouri Association of Social Welfare.

The Missouri Academy of Science will hold its third annual meeting in St. Louis, April 22-24. Each of the social sciences will have sectional meetings as integral parts of the Academy program. Visitors from other states will be welcome, either as participators in the programs or as auditors.

An unofficial meeting by members of the American Association of University Professors will also be held in connection with the Missouri Academy of Science. Those desiring to participate in this program by reading papers or by discussion, whether from Missouri or from other states, should communicate as early as possible with L. L. Bernard, Washington University, St. Louis, and designate their proposed contributions.

Professor L. L. Bernard of the Department of Sociology of Washington University has been presented with the President Masaryk medal of Czechoslovakia for his work in sociology.

William Jewell College—Dr. W. Holt Smith, head of the Department of History and Political Science, is serving as chairman of the History Section of the Missouri Academy of Science for the current year.

NEW MEXICO

University of New Mexico—Dr. Vernon G. Sorrell, head of the Economics Department, and Professor W. L. Tandy of the same department attended the sessions of the annual meeting of the American Economics Association held in Chicago during the Christmas holidays.

Professor Fred O. Kiel of the Department of Economics attended the Institute of World Affairs, held at Riverside, California, in the early part of December, and took part in round table discussions.

Dean George P. Hammond and Dr. Dorothy Woodward, members of the History Department, have been busily occupied directing the W. P. A. project in the state for collecting,

analyzing, and preserving historical materials of the Indian, Spanish, Mexican, and American periods of New Mexican history.

Dr. Benjamin Sacks of the Department of History completed an article entitled, "L'Affaire Boulanger," which has been published in the November, 1936, issue of the *New Mexico Quarterly*, a regional literary periodical.

OKLAHOMA

Oklahoma College for Women—Professor Eischeid conducted a Saturday class the first semester in Applied Sociology, which consisted of a study of practical problems of society. This course was offered mainly for school teachers and people interested in social work, who could not take it at any other time. The enrollment included social workers and high school teachers from Grady and other surrounding counties. The second semester an additional course in Applied Sociology will be given Wednesday night by Professor Eischeid.

Miss Smith, a new faculty member at Oklahoma College for Women, offered a two-hour course the first semester on the Family, which will be given also the second semester.

University of Oklahoma—Mr. B. F. Brooks, who was recently with the United States Treasury Credit Survey, Chicago Federal Reserve District, has been added to the staff of the Department of Economics, with the rank of Assistant Professor. Dr. John B. Ewing, Assistant Professor of Economics, resigned January 1 to accept a position with the Unemployment Insurance Division of the Federal Social Security Board.

Dr. Frederick Ermarth, who received the Ph.D. degree in 1931 from Heidelberg University, has been added to the staff of the Department of Government as special instructor.

Miss Grace A. Browning, Assistant Director, Oklahoma State Department of Public Welfare, is teaching a course in Child Case Work for the Department of Social Work during the present semester. For the past two years Miss Browning has been Instructor in Social Work at the Tulane University School of Social Work.

The University of Oklahoma Press has announced the publication of *Industrial Relations in the San Francisco*

Building Trades, by Dr. F. L. Ryan, Associate Professor of Economics at the University.

TEXAS

Baylor University—On December 29, 1936, Dr. Ernest G. Lewis, Assistant Professor of Economics, died of pneumonia. The position left vacant by the death of Dr. Lewis is now being occupied by Mr. P. L. Brokaw, who has done graduate work in the University of Texas and the University of Wisconsin.

Dr. W. P. Meroney, Professor of Sociology, attended the American Sociological Society and Dr. A. S. Lang, Professor of Economics, attended the American Economics Association in Chicago, December 29-31. Dr. Meroney read a paper on the family before the Sociological Society.

Dr. Royden J. Dangerfield, on leave of absence from the University of Oklahoma, where he is Associate Professor of Government, is in Waco serving as director of the Forum sponsored by the federal government. The Forum will function continuously from February 1 to June 20. Baylor University, along with other higher institutions of learning of the Southwest, is being called upon to supply speakers for the Forum. Dr. A. S. Lang will deliver before the Forum in March a series of lectures on economic problems of American democracy.

College of Mines and Metallurgy—Professor Strickland will be awarded the Ph. D. degree by the University of Texas in June.

East Texas State Teachers College—Professor Kenneth Evans of the Department of Sociology is on a leave of absence attending the University of North Carolina. Professor Evans has a teaching fellowship at North Carolina. He is being replaced at East Texas by Joseph K. Johnson, who comes from the State College of Washington. Mr. Johnson is an alumnus of the University of Texas and has done advanced work at Washington University, St. Louis.

Professor Logan Wilson of East Texas State Teachers College has been honored with a fellowship in Sociology at Harvard University and is now on a leave of absence attending that institution.

Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College—Professor W. A. Browne of the Geography Department spent the Christmas season touring Mexico. He made a reconnaissance survey of the land and people in the sections reached and a more detailed study of one region.

Professor W. T. Chambers of the Geography Department is the author of an article entitled "Cotton: the World's Leading Textile Fiber," which appeared in the February number of *Business Education World*.

University of Texas—Professor Leo G. Blackstock of the School of Business Administration has been granted a leave of absence effective January 15, to serve as Chief Examiner of the Gas Utilities Division for the Railroad Commission of Texas.

Mr. Fladger Tannery, Instructor in Accounting, has been granted a leave of absence, effective February 1, to serve as Assistant State Auditor for the State of Texas.

GENERAL

Dr. Glenn A. Bakkum, formerly head of the Sociology Department, University of Wichita, is now head of the Department of Sociology at Oregon State College, Corvallis, Oregon.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY O. DOUGLAS WEEKS
The University of Texas

Calcott, Wilfrid Hardy, *Santa Anna, The Story of an Enigma Who Once Was Mexico*. (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1936, pp. xiv, 391.)

Don Antonio López de Santa Anna, "General of Division, Well Deserving of His Country, Grand Cross of the Spanish Order of Charles III, Knight of the Order of the Red Eagle of Prussia, Grand Master of the Order of Guadalupe," raised himself five times to the Presidency of Mexico, but died impoverished and forgotten. He led his nation's armies against Spanish, French, and American invaders, but sold Mexican citizens to the slave-traders of Cuba. Throughout an extraordinarily long public career, persecution and debauchery marred his triumphs, but he did full penance for misdeeds committed during his nine years as chief executive by spending twenty-five years in galling exile. Villain, hero; thief, benefactor; lawbreaker, legislator; demagogue, patriot; Santa Anna carved out a career so violently romantic that a writer of pulp fiction could hardly create a more exotic protagonist.

The task of analyzing his character and outlining the conditions that allowed him to play such a predominant rôle in Mexican life during the first four decades of the Republic has occupied several writers and historians, and has interested many others. C. W. Raines, Clarence R. Wharton, and Frank C. Hanighen have contributed helpful interpretations, but the need for a somewhat more detailed and careful biography has long been recognized. Professor Calcott's present work largely satisfies that need. *Santa Anna, The Story of an Enigma Who Once Was Mexico*, is not a definitive study, nor does its author wish it to be so regarded. The difficulties that at present render the production of such a biography almost impossible arise principally from a lack of scientific monographs on the early Republic, and from the widely-scattered nature of primary source materials. Nevertheless, through a judicious selection of secondary sources, a careful use of special studies, and a liberal sampling of contemporary letters and documents in the Garcia Collection of The University of Texas and elsewhere, Professor Calcott has prepared a thoroughly readable volume so reliable in detail, and conservative in interpretation, that it will probably remain the standard biography of Santa Anna until much more spade work has been done.

Born on February 21, 1794, the future Victor of Tampico was destined by his parents for a commercial career, but the army lured him away from the ledger, and in 1810, he secured a cadetship in the Spanish army. In five rapidly moving chapters, Professor Calcott describes Santa Anna's early military ventures, relations with Iturbide, conversion to republicanism, championship of Guerrero, and the famous clash at Tampico. The forces that combined to form the young man's character during this plastic period are deftly woven into the narrative, partly through the medium of vivid descriptive passages. By 1829, "The uncertainties of daybreak were now passed. The sun in its full splendor shone upon the man of destiny as he strode forth with confidence to mold—for good or ill—his country's future."

The central theme of the book, namely, that Santa Anna was the spirit and central figure of the early Republic, appears in the portrait of the man during the "morning" of his career, between 1830 and 1845. His ascent to the Presidency as a Federalist, his conversion to centralism, the Texas debacle, his political and military regeneration at Vera Cruz, and the events of the autocratic administration of 1841-1844, furnish ample material for nine factual but entertaining chapters.

After the Paredes revolt of 1844, Santa Anna endured several weeks of imprisonment and fourteen months of exile. Old grievances were forgotten, however, when the war with the United States broke out, and Mexico's one successful general was again elevated to the highest position in the land. There he put forth reliant but useless efforts to save his country from defeat. In this early "afternoon" of his life, the present volume shows the famous *veracruzano* in a most favorable light; although his voluntary exile, from 1847 to 1853, is also sympathetically treated. The dictatorship of 1853-1855, portrayed in all its shallow grandeur, completes the canvass of the middle period.

The long, bitter "twilight" years (1855-1874) were passed in Cuba, New Granada, St. Thomas, the United States, Yucatan, and the fortress of San Juan Ulloa. Efforts of the old exile to secure amnesty from the triumphant liberals failed completely, as did intrigues with the Imperialists and the government of the United States. Two informative chapters cover this dreary period, and one suffices for a kindly narration of the events of those last "dark" days between Santa Anna's return to Mexico City in 1874, and his death in the house on the Calle de Vergara on June 21, 1876.

Professor Calcott's extensive bibliography and careful index increase the value of his work for the historian, while the chronological and biographical tables should prove exceptionally useful to persons not familiar with the period. Interest is always well sustained by a pleasing style and the inclusion of much anecdotal material. Some of the descriptive passages are particularly well written, revealing the author as a careful and appreciative observer as well as a trained investigator.

For the most part, Professor Calcott has written with considerable accuracy, but a few errors in fact and several slips in proof reading may be noted. A cartoon (facing p. 218) is assigned the publication date of 1845, in its caption and in the list of illustrations; although some of the events satirized therein, such as the sale of the Mesilla and the battle of Coquillo occurred in the 'fifties. A statement that Santa Anna encouraged the theatre (p. 304) might be challenged by those who feel that a rigidly censored theatre is worse than no theatre at all. Most of the other errors should probably be attributed to the proof-reader. Inconsistencies and mistakes in punctuation are relatively numerous, and several proper nouns have been misspelled or misprinted. A few dates are obviously incorrect. Santa Anna's extraordinary influence over Mexican affairs began to appear in 1822 (p. 34), and his visit to the capital during the reign of Iturbide (p. 37) likewise took place in that year, rather than in 1882, which was six years after his death. The period of watchful waiting, prior to the insurrection of Urrea and Gomez Farias (p. 187), probably lasted throughout the spring and summer of 1840, instead of 1841.

In one instance, figures appear to have been misread, for reference is made to a forced loan of 2,500,000 pesos (p. 191) "of which the clergy and landlords were to pay 270,000,000 pesos in four days."

Due credit must be given to the University of Oklahoma Press for the use of a clear, attractive type. Professor Calcott deserves the heartiest commendation for undertaking, and successfully completing, a most difficult piece of research.

RICHARD A. JOHNSON

The University of Texas

Goodrich, Carter, and Others, *Migration and Economic Opportunity, The Report of the Study of Population Redistribution*. (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1936, pp. xvii, 763).

As stated in the preface, "This book is the report of the study of Population Redistribution which was organized in 1934 under the auspices of the Industrial Research Department of the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce of the University of Pennsylvania. The project was initiated by the Social Science Research Council and has been supported by a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation."

The need for migration is developed under the chapter headings: (1) Regional Contrasts in Economic Levels (adapted from *Migration and Planes of Living*, by Goodrich, Bushrod W. Allin, and Marion Hayes), (2) The Southern Appalachian Coal Plateaus, by Frederick G. Tryon and Allin, (3) The Old Cotton Belt, by Rupert B. Vance, (4) The Cutover Region of the Great Lakes States, by Allin, (5) The Great Plains, by C. Warren Thornthwaite, (6) The Changing Distribution of Resources, by Tryon, (7) The Changing Pattern of Industrial Location, (8) The Changing Demand for Man-Power. Of the four "problem areas" studied, in only the Great Lakes Cut-Over Region is the migration need expected to be solved by an early spontaneous movement on the return of industrial prosperity. The Great Plains area is the only one of the four that has not experienced a notable increase of population recently on the poorest lands, a depression phenomenon.

As Texas and Oklahoma are not considered in the treatment of the Cotton Belt the Great Plains chapter should be of greatest interest to readers of the *Quarterly*.

The Great Plains area is here delimited on the basis of its semi-arid climate. But average rainfall values are considered less significant than the extremes. Thornthwaite states, "It is an area where climatic conditions unfavorable to permanent agricultural economy recur with irregular persistency. The unpredictable yet certain recurrence of drought has become the chief factor limiting the development of the land and the population."

It was during the decade from 1920 to 1930 rather than in the period of the World War that the greatest expansion of agriculture and population took place in the Great Plains of Kansas, Oklahoma and Texas, Thornthwaite points out, indicating disruption of the cattle market and increasing

mechanization of agriculture as basic factors. "Between 1920 and 1930 only two counties in the High Plains (here synonymous to Great Plains) of Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas lost population. Twenty-five gained more than 100 per cent."

The unreliable character of precipitation, made disastrous by the occurrence of arid years, is shown graphically by diagram and map. Practically the entire southern half of the Great Plains experienced at least one "arid" (desert) year between 1910 and 1934.

The author continues, "On the basis of the 68 year record of Las Animas (Colo.), it seems safe to expect a greater number of arid years and fewer subhumid years in the southern Great Plains during the next quarter century than were experienced during the last."

The analysis of income and loss from wheat growing in Sheridan County, Kansas seems especially significant. Twelve of the twenty-one years in the period 1912-1934 for which data were available (only 1914 and 1919 being missing) showed net losses; \$20,472.32 of the accumulated income for the twenty-one years from a 640 acre farm, totaling \$21,167.36, was credited to a single year, 1920, when both yield and price were high. The risks appear too great to be adequately compensated by a few "bonanza" years. Thornthwaite concludes that "The farmers who are hoping to get rich by raising wheat in the Great Plains are unable or unwilling to consider, realistically, the odds against them."

The problem of wind erosion, chiefly a result of cultivation, is considered and a map of degree of erosion is inserted. The largest area of severe wind erosion consists of the Oklahoma Panhandle and much of southeastern Colorado and southwestern Kansas.

The remedy suggested is in line with the views of Major John W. Powell (*Lands of the Arid Regions of the United States*, Washington, 1878) and Willard D. Johnson (*The High Plains and Their Utilization*, Washington, 1900) that the Great Plains are adapted to grazing rather than crop production. It is assumed that a pastoral economy plus the production of feed and forage crops in irrigated areas and on soils resistant to wind and water will support as many inhabitants as the "aggregate of the greatest pastoral populations that have existed at any time in the various sections of the Great Plains prior to agricultural expansion into the area." This aggregate is set at "not more than one and a third million people, only about two-thirds of the 1930 population." Thornthwaite holds that emigration between 1930 and 1935 has accounted for approximately 150,000 inhabitants. The estimated surplus left in the Great Plains portion of Texas is 12,200 families; New Mexico, 2,450 families; Oklahoma, 2,930 families; Kansas, 6,100 families, and Colorado 2,580 families, to list only the states in the southern half of the area.

A beginning in the retirement of the land has been made by (1) the withdrawal of public lands from homestead entry; (2) provision for the controlled leasing of the public range; (3) location of land purchase projects of the Resettlement Administration in the Great Plains; (4) location of purchase projects of the Biological Survey, the Indian Bureau, and the National Parks Service in the area. It is suggested that land that reverts to county and state governments and to the land banks should be prevented from returning to private ownership or its use restricted. The alternatives as seen for the Great Plains are "retrench-

ment" (presumably as given above) "permanent poverty and distress, or permanent subsidy." In the suggested retrenchment program the government is expected to take the lead.

The more difficult task of the control of migration, or the redistribution of population, is the subject matter of Part II. The preliminary character of the recommendations is fully recognized. Rural zoning, land retirement, migration from the problems areas, a resumption of the movement of rural populations into industry, a permanent United States Employment Service are all given approval. The fact that this inventory of economic resources in terms of human use has been made is evidence of increasing social consciousness.

LESLIE HEWES

University of Oklahoma

Thorndyke, Lynn, *History of Magic and Experimental Science*. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1934, vol. III, pp. ix, 827, vol. IV, pp. 767.)

The first two volumes of this monumental work (published in 1923, reprinted in 1929), told the story of magic and experimental science from the first century through the thirteenth of the Christian era. The many articles and a book of essays on the fifteenth century (*Science and Thought in the Fifteenth Century*, 1929) which have appeared since have indicated that the author was continuing the study of his chosen field into the later medieval period. These last two volumes present a most thorough and extensive knowledge of magic and science in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. It is to be hoped that Professor Thorndyke will continue his labors in materials of the sixteenth century. No one is better qualified to lead us on to the beginning of modern science.

This history of medieval magic is, and without doubt long will be, the standard treatment of the subject. It is notable, first of all, for amount of material, printed and manuscript, which the author has found, and the descriptions which he gives will prepare the way for much future study in the field. But these volumes also continue the story of human interest in and discussion of magic by careful analysis and comparison of all the most typical and significant writing on all the phases of the subject. Professor G. L. Burr in reviewing the first half of the author's work, said, "His is a foundation-laying work." That characterization is equally applicable to these last volumes. Our knowledge of magic for the entire Middle Ages now rests on a secure foundation.

How tedious and fumbling has been man's approach to modern scientific knowledge, and how difficult has it been to learn the methods by which it had to be obtained. During the so-called Renaissance, the period in which we have always been told that the medieval mind was becoming somewhat modern, science was still magic to the most intelligent and learned experimenters. The urge to investigate natural science was chiefly a desire to know what occult forces controlled the destinies of human beings and the universe. For the most part, astronomy was still astrology, chemistry was alchemy, and medicine was superstition. During the period of awakening, the best minds were still mulling over much of the old theory which had been believed for centuries, and, as the era

closes, there seems to have been a slackening in such progress as can be noted. "Scientifically the fifteenth century strikes us as distinctly inferior to the fourteenth, with the exception perhaps of certain fields such as surgery and anatomy." "Were humanism and painting detracting—except in the case of a Leonardo da Vinci—from the pursuit of natural science and mathematics?" Nevertheless, the interest in magic and experimental science seems to have been more widespread than ever before. The greater volume of written work in this field is made evident by the fact that the author uses nearly as many pages to describe these two centuries as he needed for the preceding thirteen.

Notwithstanding all this repetition and rehashing of old ideas, scientific conceptions were occasionally emerging from magic, and the notion of experimentation was making some headway. Observation of the planets and stars was becoming more accurate and the equipment for a Copernicus was being surely prepared. Out of the haphazard cooking and brewing of incredible mixtures, the alchemists were getting some certain knowledge of the qualities of certain minerals. One daring experimenter, who reasoned that aconite was not poisonous, used his own body as a laboratory to prove his theory. The author even finds suggestions of the beginnings of mathematical physics.

The work may seem tedious and repetitious to any but the specialist who is interested in the field, and it is full of rare and obsolete terms. The author plods on through his material caring only to note the slight variations and minute glimmerings of new ideas. But what a mine of information about the thought and knowledge of the period these volumes contain. How necessary they are to anyone who may wish to understand any phase of the history of literature of the late Middle Ages. For if we are to know the working of the medieval mind in any field of thought, we must know what the men of this time believed about their physical environment. If their natural science was still shot through with ancient magic, how much superstition was there in their reasoning about religion, politics and economics. Their conceptions of natural science unquestionably colored all that they thought in all fields of knowledge, practical and theoretical.

F. DUNCALF

The University of Texas

Sweeney, Henry W., *Stabilized Accounting*. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1936, pp. 219.)

Dr. Sweeney brings the indictment that ordinary accounting procedure is defective in three respects—in that it is irrelevant, incomplete, and mathematically unsound. It is irrelevant in that it fails to measure the ability to acquire consumptive goods and incomplete in that it does not attempt to measure both money-value profit and loss due to change in price level and money-value profit and loss viewed from the standpoint of operations. It is mathematically unsound because the profit and loss statement and balance sheet figures are all scrambled together. Cash

is expressed in current dollar values; buildings in dollar values as of acquisition date and gross income in the average dollar of the period under review. Thus these unhomogeneous measures do not make good arithmetic sense. The author's thesis is a proposal to correct the serious defects in present-day accounting so that management would be more effectively served through a technique which would tend to measure the fluctuating value of the dollar during the various periods of the business cycle. Dr. Sweeney, after several years of thinking and writing on the question of stabilized accounting, recognizes the numerous controversial issues raised in the proposal. He discusses some of the more pertinent issues, both theoretical and the practical.

The theory and technique of stabilized accounting are outlined in the first three chapters of the book, and chapters IV to VII are devoted to a practical demonstration of the application of stabilized accounting as it applies to a public utility, a woolen mill, and a factoring company. These practical demonstrations are made under the query as to whether or not results can be produced which would be worth more than the cost to obtain them. The query is answered in the affirmative. In the utility, a water-works case, the price level stood at the same level as of both the beginning and end of the year. In the woolen mill case the price level at the end of the year was slightly higher than at the beginning of the year, while the factoring company covered a period of markedly declining prices.

It is the author's opinion that Carl Snyder's "general index" would serve as a satisfactory measure of consumptive goods value. His acceptance of this index over others is based on the reasoning that business is primarily engaged in for the purpose of securing and enjoying consumptive goods. Thus accounting data should ideally be measured with reference to progress made in obtaining either more consumptive goods or greater power over them.

The last part of the book is devoted to anticipating and answering several rather obvious objections. The writer admits that stabilized accounting is not practical under all conditions but believes that its adaptation will prove practical in many situations. He assents to the objection of tardiness in securing index information but does not consider this a major objection nor one which is impossible of improvement. He disagrees with those who contend that stabilized accounting would interfere with the preparation of tax returns. Since stabilized accounting does not in any way interfere with book entries it can not interfere with the preparation of tax returns. To those who contend that stabilized accounting improperly values at market price, he replies that they do not understand the stabilization process.

It is the reviewer's opinion that this pioneering work on stabilized accounting represents a contribution in a little explored field of accounting in the United States. It, like most pioneering attempts, will not meet with widespread acceptance in the near future. However, it should serve to provoke the thinking of those who are looking to the future instead of to the past.

M. S. CARROLL

Baylor University

Barton, J. T., *A Debt Administration Manual for Texas Cities*. (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1936, pp. 109.)

This is the fifth and last of a series of financial manuals or handbooks which have been published by the Bureau of Municipal Research of the University of Texas. The other manuals are as follows: *A Budget Manual for Texas Cities*, by Roscoe C. Martin; *A Manual of Tax Collection Procedure for Texas Cities*, by Lyndon E. Abbott; *A Revenue System for Texas Cities*, by J. T. Barton; *A Purchasing Manual for Texas Cities*, by Lyndon E. Abbott. These handbooks are designed to serve primarily as reference manuals for the use of the financial agents of Texas cities. This, however, is by no means the sole justification for them. There is a wealth of digested information in them concerning the financial problems and structure of Texas cities, and the student and teacher of government have much to gain from a perusal of them.

Mr. Barton's *Debt Administration Manual*, the latest of these manuals to be published, is a well-written and thorough treatment of the problems connected with municipal debt administration in Texas. This study was prepared, as were the others in the series, from the facts gathered in studying representative cities to some ten per cent of the total incorporated cities of Texas, questionnaires being returned from some fifty-two cities and some thirty of the cities being visited personally by the author. The first chapter of the handbook deals with the debt problem and its effect upon the taxpayers, the bondholders, and the municipal officials. The remaining five chapters are composed of criticisms of existing structure and practices, and of suggestions and advice to those who have the duty of administering the public debt of the cities. The kernel of the suggestion in each case is embodied in an italicized topic sentence, which goes further toward carrying out the manual motif. These rules for an effective debt administration are not derived solely from the examination of the practices of Texas cities in debt administration, but also from the study of treatises concerning municipal debt administration in other parts of the United States. With regard to the incurrence of debt, the following topic sentences are typical: "The issuance of municipal credit obligations should be founded upon carefully evolved plans which have their basis in a long-term budget." "A bond election should be preceded by a conscientious effort to enlighten the electorate concerning the proposed issue." "Careful consideration should be paid to the legality of each step taken in the issuance of city bonds." In the matter of refunding municipal debts, the following are some of the suggestions made: "If a debt adjustment is to be made, the council should place upon some one city official the responsibility of and the authority for performing the necessary administrative work." "If debt adjustment is unavoidable, a refunding agreement should be made, if possible, before a default takes place." With regard to debt payment: "Satisfactory administration of debt payment is dependent upon adequate records." "So far as possible, publicly owned utilities should bear their own debt retirement expenses." "Redeemed coupons and bonds should be handled with the greatest of care." "Sinking funds should be productive assets." "A periodical survey should be made of the market value of the securities which are held in the sinking funds." Other material could be quoted, but the above statements are sufficient to show the nature of

the study. Suggestions are made in the last two chapters concerning municipal and state action for the improvement of municipal debt administration. This manual, especially when taken in conjunction with the other manuals of the series, will prove to be very profitable reading to financial administrators in Texas.

JOE M. RAY

The University of Texas

La Monte, John, and Hubert, Merton Jerome (translators and editors), *The Wars of Frederick II Against the Ibelins in Syria and Cyprus* by Philip de Novare. (*Records of Civilization, Sources and Studies* edited under the auspices of the Department of History, Columbia University, Number XXV, New York: Columbia University Press, 1936, pp. ix, 230.)

Sir Philip de Novare was a thirteenth-century Lombard gentleman whose varied services to the Ibelin family of Syria and Cyprus won him a respectable position in the proud society of *Outremer*. He performed the ordinary political and military duties of a feudal noble with marked distinction, and he won added laurels as a legal expert, diplomat, and author. His versatile pen led him from the solemn depths of jurisprudence to the broad plain of history and even into the fantastic heights of poetry. It is true that his venture into the historical field seems to have been prompted by political, rather than scholarly, considerations; but modern investigators owe a great debt to this busy North Italian, for he left a remarkably vivid, if somewhat distorted, picture of his times.

Sir Philip's *History* only attempts to present the Guelph side of a struggle between the Ibelins and Frederick II; but, in the words of its translator, it also depicts "most vividly the life and ideas of those medieval gentlemen who settled in the Latin Orient to make their fortunes It gives an excellent picture of colonial self-consciousness and local patriotism, of feudal relationships and loyalties." This quality should commend the *History* not only to persons interested in research, but also to the student who seeks to grasp the spirit of medieval times through an approach to its source materials.

Professor La Monte's introduction to the narrative and his scholarly work in annotating it should enable persons unfamiliar with the history of the crusading kingdoms to read the account with complete understanding. Moreover, the inclusion of a condensed table showing the relationships of the house of Ibelin greatly lightens the burden of coping with Sir Philip's frequent genealogical references. The appendices supplement the text admirably, and reproduce other early accounts of incidents described therein.

The translation itself is clear and literary. Involved or inaccurate statements have been clarified or exposed by helpful footnotes and bracketed insertions. The verse translations of the poems by Professor Hubert add greatly to the charm of the *History* and create a desire to sample more of Sir Philip's metrical efforts. In all respects Number XXV in the

Records of Civilization meets the high standards set by its predecessors. Professors La Monte and Hubert, and the editors of this valuable series of sources and studies, have made another distinct contribution to historical literature.

RICHARD A. JOHNSON

The University of Texas

Robinson, Virginia P., *Supervision in Social Case Work. A Problem in Professional Education*. (Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1936, pp. xv, 199.)

This book by Miss Robinson, who teaches a course on "Problems and Methods of Supervision" at the Pennsylvania School of Social Work, is a valuable contribution to the literature of social work in that it is the first comprehensive statement of teaching methods employed by supervisors who have the responsibility for the training in social agencies of students from the professional schools. Although the discussion is limited to the levels of supervision during the two year period of graduate study the book contains practical suggestions for supervisors of workers who have not had the benefit of school training. The chapter on the evaluation of workers gives principles which should be applicable to the study of the progress of staff members in all case work agencies. The analysis of the four levels of supervisory capacity offers suggestions for the assignment, classification, and training of supervisors.

Field work under supervision in social agencies is described as a dynamic learning process. It is pointed out that the student must not be taught the content, only, of the work he is to do, and the skills necessary to the practice of this knowledge, but in addition must be stimulated to develop what Miss Robinson calls a "professional self." The supervisor, through his relationship with the student can guide the development of this "professional self" if he is conscious of his teaching methods. Miss Robinson describes the psychological process which takes place in the student-supervisor relationship by which the student, through a reorganization of his old attitudes and emotional responses, is enabled to understand the behavior of his clients and the factors in the situation he is studying from an objective point of view, rather than from the view of his own life experiences. Miss Robinson emphasizes that the supervisor should be concerned chiefly with the student's reactions which influence his work and his relationships with his clients, and cannot be expected, within the limits of the supervisory experience, to deal with basic personality problems of the student. The goal of the supervisor is to develop workers who can do independent thinking and who can be expected to act in a responsible way. Supervisors should be grateful to Miss Robinson for analyzing methods by which this goal can be reached.

MILDRED E. HILBERG

Settlement Club Home
Austin, Texas

Stuart, Graham H., *American Diplomatic and Consular Practice*. (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1936, pp. xi, 560.)

Because of extensive developments in our Foreign Service and the Department of State since the passage of the Rogers Act in 1924, there has been great need of an up-to-date, authoritative, and comprehensive survey of the machinery for the conduct of American foreign relations. This need has finally been filled by Dr. Stuart's new book. It is indeed a boon to those who, for professional or other reasons, require a complete and exact picture of our foreign relations administration set-up. According to the author, one of his objects in writing this volume was to show the practical utility and fundamental necessity of the work of the Department of State and the Foreign Service by giving a first hand account of what they are doing and how they are doing it.

This volume begins with an historical summary of diplomatic and consular services in general. Next follows an account of the development, organization, and work of the Department of State. The offices and divisions of the Department are discussed as they are concerned, first, with the determination of policy, and second, with administration.

After a lengthy chapter on the historical development of our foreign services, there follows separate chapters on various subjects relating to diplomatic and consular officers, such as, appointment, reception, privileges and immunities, and duties and functions. These chapters are replete with illustrations of actual occurrences which not only help to clarify the subject-matter, but materially increase reader-interest.

The short chapter on "The Control of Foreign Relations in the United States" is inadequate because of its very brevity. It is indeed unfortunate that a complete section of the book could not be devoted to the nature of the foreign relations power, for this would greatly increase the value of the volume as a textbook for courses in American Diplomacy.

Moreover, it appears to the reviewer that the volume is too factual and objective. It contains no criticism of our foreign relations machinery. The Rogers Act, subsequent acts of Congress, and executive decrees have materially improved our foreign agencies, it is true, but still much remains to be done. But, regarding existing deficiencies and abuses in the service, Stuart is silent. The Foreign Policy Association Report: "The Department of State: Its Organization and Needs" (1929) called attention to many abuses in the Department of State which have not been remedied to the present day.

J. L. MECHAM

The University of Texas

Russell, Frank M., *Theories of International Relations*. (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936, pp. viii, 651.)

Whether or not existing international institutions and practices are adequate to meet the needs, it is at least clear that peoples and governments are increasingly aware of the critical nature of international problems. That awareness is evidenced not merely by experimentation with techniques and institutions but also by a growing volume of literature bearing upon international relations. It was inevitable, therefore, that a book such

as the present volume would appear. In presenting this "survey of the development of man's ideas concerning the relationship of independent political communities" the author has ably performed a timely service.

In arranging his material the author has effected a happy combination of the chronological and the topical. Beginning with primitive man he advances to ancient China and India, thence in regular order to Greece, Rome, the Middle Ages and the twentieth century. Relatively greater emphasis is put upon later centuries. The first seven chapters (135 pages) bring the story to the seventeenth century. The next five chapters (145 pages) deal with the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries. The ideas of the twentieth century consume the remainder (ten chapters, 270 pages). In each instance there is an admirable transition from one time and theory to the next.

Mention of some of the topics treated will show the scope of the author's study. For the seventeenth century he discusses international law and international organization; for the nineteenth century, nationality, national self-determination, war and progress, national expansion, and imperialism. For the period since 1900 he treats such vital topics as pacifism and internationalism before the World War, the balance of power and the League system, the outlawry of war, international control of backward areas, disarmament and security, continentalism and regionalism, integral nationalism (totalitarianism), and socialism and communism.

In his method of treatment Professor Russell is not content with presenting a mere analysis of the writings of a host of scholars, statesmen, politicians, and even propagandists; he evaluates periods and environments as well as ideas. He gives the setting for both institutions and theories. The result is a volume that possesses scholarship and intellectual aliveness.

CHARLES A. TIMM

The University of Texas

de Belausteguigoita, Ramón, *Reparto de Tierras y Producción Nacional*, (Barcelona; Espasa-Calpe. S. A., 1932, pp. 265.)
Tatay, Luis Donderis, *La Copropiedad: Teorías; Derecho Español*, (Madrid Editorial Reus, 1933, pp. 178.)
La Cooperación y el Campesino, (Mexico, D. F.: Herrero Hermanos Sucesores, pp. 64.)

Here are three works with a very fundamental bearing upon the agrarian problem in both Spain and Mexico. The *Distribution of Lands and National Production* is by a Spanish colonist settled in the State of Durango, Mexico, where he seems to have been inspired by Mexican agrarian ideals and practices to deliver a message to the Spanish proletariat and republicans. He is filled with enthusiasm for the revivification of spirit which a democratic ownership of the soil brings to a civilization, the new idealism, and the individual competency of the masses. He reviews the history of latifundia in Spain and in Mexico and the misery it caused, analyzes the progress in land reform and in cooperative agriculture in Mexico, and draws conclusions for Spanish practice. Incidentally, this book throws a strong side light upon one aspect of the democratic movement in Spain.

Much more sober is Donderis' *Coproprietorship*, but it is oriented in the same general direction. Written by a professor of law in the University of Valencia, it examines the Roman and the Spanish law in a search for a fundamental legal and social basis for cooperative agricultural undertakings which may replace large scale individual ownership. An interesting secondary sociological product of the book is the discussion of the relation of society and community, which are found to be of the same root significance in Roman and Spanish law.

Very keen and practical and well presented is the little handbook on *Cooperation and the Agricultural Laborer*, which does not disclose the name of its clever author. Its purpose is evidently political as well as educational. It reviews the work of the Revolution in favor of the countryman and then points out that a mere restoration of the lands to the people will not solve their economic difficulties: they must have cooperation to complete their economic emancipation. The various types of cooperation are clearly explained and methods of organization are set forth.

L. L. BERNARD

Washington University

BOOK NOTES

The Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel published its findings in the form of two major reports and five monographs (all publications, New York and London: McGraw-Hill, 1935), which deserve the careful study of all students of government personnel. The report proper, *Better Government Personnel*, is a powerful statement of the case for a reorientation of the popular mind toward the question of public employment. If its plea were given a wide hearing, there would no longer be need for Americans to gaze enviously at the British civil service while deplored the spoils system of their own country. Equally important, and invaluable for its source material on attitudes toward the public service, is the *Minutes of Evidence taken before the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel*. This includes some 600 pages of testimony by professional and lay persons in Washington, New York, Chicago, Minneapolis, St. Paul, Seattle, San Francisco, Berkeley, Palo Alto, Los Angeles, and Richmond.

Two of the monographs are devoted to the civil service in foreign countries: *Training Public Employees in Great Britain*, by Harvey Walker, and *Civil Service Abroad: Great Britain, Canada, France, Germany*, Leonard D. White, Charles H. Bland, Walter R. Sharp, and Fritz M. Marx writing on these subjects respectively. The monographs of Dr. White and Dr. Sharp are particularly to be commended. Another volume is given over to *Problems of the American Public Service*, and includes the monographs of Carl Joachim Friedrich on "Responsible Government Service under the American Constitution"; by William C. Beyer on "Municipal Civil Service in the United States"; by Sterling D. Spero on "Employer and Employee in the Public Service", involving some interesting problems

for the student of social phenomena, as well as for the administrator; by John F. Miller on "Veteran Preference in the Public Service"; and by George A. Graham on "Personnel Practices in Business and Governmental Organizations."

Lucius Wilmerding, Jr., presents a separate treatment of problems of the public service in *Government by Merit. A Bibliography of Civil Service and Personnel Administration*, by Sarah Greer constitutes Monograph I.

H. L. C.

Intervention, Civil War, and Communism in Russia, April-December, 1918: Documents and Materials, edited by James Bunyan (The Walter Hines Page School of International Relations.) (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1936, pp. ix, 594), is the second volume of documents, drawn largely from the riches of the Hoover War Library, on the historical vicissitudes of the Communist Régime in Russia. It is well up to the standard of the first, and deserves the hearty commendation of all students of recent Russian history. Admirable care has been shown in the selection and arrangement of these documents, and the occasional connecting links in the form of editorial commentary on the background enables one to piece together a connected story. It is obviously only a skeleton history that is here revealed to us, and there is much to be filled in by the investigator; but we are fortunate in having available (in English) this collection of official, semi-official, and other more or less formal pronouncements which are indispensable for a study of this tangled period. One gets, on the whole, a little more favorable impression of the Bolsheviks than one used to have, and a decidedly unfavorable opinion of the policy of the great powers. One of the most interesting sections of the book reveals Germany's cynical exploitation of the Ukraine in 1918. Light is also shed on the atmosphere and molding of the Red Terror, though anything like an exhaustive understanding of this phenomenon must await much patient research.

T. W. R.

In *Home Rule for Metropolitan Chicago* (Social Science Studies No. 31, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935, pp. 210), Albert Lepawsky combines sound scholarship with a knack for interesting presentation. The thesis is that the Chicago metropolitan area cannot hope to have good government until a large measure of freedom is obtained from legislative control from Springfield. The argument is convincingly reasoned and illuminated by Dr. Lepawsky's undeniable gift for picking the interesting facts from a maze of available material. He quite properly hopes to reach an audience outside as well as within the academic profession, but in no sense does he sacrifice scholarship for popular appeal. The Table of Contents gives a very clear idea as to what to expect in the book: *Metropolitan Chicago Comes of Age; Chicago Polices Itself; Chicago Guards Its Health; Chicago Plans Its Home; Chicago Fosters Social Welfare;*

Illinois Controls Transport and Utilities; Illinois Directs Chicago's Public Finances; Illinois Guides Chicago's Government; Illinois Makes the Laws; Planning for Metropolitan Self-Government.

H. L. C.

During the past several years much has been written about the need for reconstruction of rural local government. Reallocation of functions, rearrangement of areas, and internal administrative reorganization have been generally suggested as the means to be employed. In many instances, however, such proposals have been made without any attempt to evaluate their need in the light of a particular function which local government now performs. In *Local Democracy and Crime Control* (Washington: The Brookings Institution, 1936, pp. xii, 263), Arthur C. Millspaugh surveys the problem of local government reconstruction with special reference to the important crime control function. In giving to this broad problem "the test of rationality" through pointing out the need for reorganization in performing one of the most important local government functions, the author has performed a most useful service.

J. A. B.

The Police and Modern Society, by August Vollmer (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1936, pp. 241), is a primarily factual study, illustrated plentifully from the author's experience in police work and a close following of contemporary police problems. Mr. Vollmer discusses major crimes, vice, traffic, general police service, and crime prevention. He makes a plea for a more cooperative spirit between citizens and the police force, deplored the very general tendency in the United States for the citizen to regard the policeman as "against" him rather than "for" him. The book should serve to aid in breaking down that animosity, to the extent that it obtains a wide hearing, as the point of view of the police officer is sympathetically and interestingly presented.

H. L. C.

In *El Mercado Ordenado del Trigo Argentino* (El Ateneo, Buenos Aires, pp. 152), Enilio A. Coni, the most distinguished of the Argentine agricultural economists, has presented a highly scientific and most detailed statistical analysis of the marketing of Argentine wheat. In ten chapters replete with tested data and in 28 pages of separate tables in appendices he analyzes carefully the various marketing expenses involved, the seasonal and cyclical fluctuations in prices, the economics of the Canadian and other marketing pools, the experiment in marketing wheat made by the Hoover Administration, the Argentine elevator system, and the various special factors that must be kept in mind in marketing Argentine wheat abroad. There is also a list, covering six and a half printed pages, of the writing of this distinguished economist and statistician.

L. L. B.

A most valuable summary of Argentine monetary history, with implications for the development of future monetary policies, is Luis Roque Gondra's *La Circulación Monetaria en la República Argentina* (La Vanguardia, Buenos Aires, 1932, pp. 63). Gondra is professor of Economics in the Faculty of Economic Sciences of the University of Buenos Aires and brings to his pointed and pregnant analysis of monetary history nearly thirty years of careful study of the economic history of his country. The work is introduced with some interesting observations on the place of economics in a national science field and upon the fact that while physicians must be licensed to practice every inspired person may write on economics—which somehow reminds the reviewer of North American political economics (not political economy).

L. L. B.

El Mercado Japonés para Productos Argentinos (122 pp., privately distributed), by José Garo, Argentine consul in Kobe, is a carefully prepared report on the wine and liquor, milk, leather, meat, wool, fruit, and cotton industries in Japan, as of 1934, with concluding chapters on how to market Argentine raw materials in Japan and methods of stimulating reciprocal trade relations. There is also a valuable statistical analysis (pp. 23-33) of wages, work conditions, unemployment, labor conflicts, unionization, etc. of Japanese industrial workers.

L. L. B.

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